

The Nation.

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The Week.

THE "Allen County Movement," as it is called in Ohio, is a movement of Liberal or Reform Democrats, who believe that both the existing parties are mere stumbling-blocks in the way of reform and progress, and desire to see a new party, founded by the honest men of both parties, but still possibly retaining the name of Democrats, take the field. On the other hand, the Liberal Republicans of Ohio are Republicans who also believe that both the existing parties are mere stumbling-blocks in the way of reform and progress, and also desire to see a new party formed by the honest men of both parties, but as to its designation they are not at all nice. To the most casual observer the objects of these two parties are strikingly similar. The Allen County Democrats, in convention assembled, resolved some little time since that they invite the people of Ohio, without regard to past political associations, to meet at Columbus in mass convention on the 30th of July, "to take such action as the exigencies of the times demand." By a natural coincidence, the Liberal Republicans were to hold a convention in the same city of Columbus on the same day. In accordance with the decision of a caucus held on the 29th, the Liberal Republicans decided to unite with the Allen County Democrats, and on the 30th, having done so, a joint, or, as it is called by its enemies, a "conglomerate" convention was held, a platform adopted, and a mixed State ticket nominated, the names on which are not known outside of Ohio. The meeting is said to have been held in a small apartment, to prevent the capture of the Convention by "John G. Thompson's hummers," a wise precaution which other conventions would do well to follow.

The Ohio papers, politicians, and public men seem to be very much distraught by this new movement. Mr. Groesbeck, for example, says that he does not wish to leave the old Democratic homestead; he likes it, and always has liked it; yet he cannot but think that the Democratic party is a "spoiled" party. Mr. Thurman, on the other hand, thinks that the Allen County movement is all a blunder, and appears to believe that Democracy is on the eve of a revival. The *Enquirer*, the leading Democratic organ, strongly supports Senator Thurman's position, and ventures the assertion that the Democracy will pay no attention to the Allen County people, or the Liberal Republicans and their doings. The platform, however, of these parties in joint-convention seems well enough, although it is much sneered at by the Administration papers as negative and platitudinarian. It asserts, for one thing, that a tariff should be for revenue alone; for another, that by some means there must somehow be a reform of the civil service; and, for another, that we have gone too far away from the wholesome principle of local self-government. Platitudinarian or not, we suppose no one would read the resolution about centralization, which is the one most condemned, and not suspect that, after the success of the new party, revenue cutters would not be so much employed in Louisiana politics as they have been. Of the Liberal Republicans, or rather of the dissatisfied Reformers who were never of that pretended party, General Cox and Judge Stallo have spoken. So far as we can make out, they give a qualified adhesion to the movement. General Cox significantly advised the ratification meeting to remember that in such matters haste was made slowly, and success not to be soon expected. And this, we take it, he said less with reference to the numbers embodied in the nascent organism, for indeed their success is not worth any man's talking about, let alone General Cox's, but because he is of opinion that the truly reforming party of the

future is yet to appear, and that as yet but little has been done in the way of getting it on foot. As for the Democracy and the Republicans, Liberal journals are hardly to be trusted to talk; they are somewhat hampered in all their dealing with the movement; for one thing, a number of old prophecies that the Democratic party was to die stand over from last year embarrassing them much, and with these are a number of ingenious proofs that, if the Democracy died, Republicanism also would perish. All the facts, however, point to something like an old-fashioned fight between the two great parties. The principal candidate of the joint party, or People's Party, as it is proposed to call it, is a respectable Democratic judge, Mr. Collins, and the rest of the ticket is made up of alternate Liberal Republican and Democratic names.

Certainly nobody is just now greedy for politics. Not even the "intellectual department, half European," of a distinguished contemporary of ours—which, by the way, some of its envious rivals accuse of going down to Castle Garden on the arrival of emigrant vessels from Queenstown, and then and there obtaining future members of said department by casting the lasso—has been equal to the task of rousing the country to the impending danger of "Caesarism." Everybody has refused also to discuss with the customary fertility of epithet the Third Term Question. Politics have to be always going on nevertheless, and this year and this summer are like the other years and seasons in this respect. In Virginia there is some local excitement—a Virginia governor's term lasting four years, and Governor Walker's being on the eve of expiring. He was elected in 1869 by a majority of more than 18,000, and the State was definitely handed over to the Conservative or white party. Last year, however, owing to the inability of some Conservatives to look with patience, and of others to look with seriousness, on the nomination of the late Mr. Greeley, Grant actually carried the State by between one and two thousand majority—not the least unpredictable of the singular things in that curious campaign. Upon this result some persons are basing expectations that the Republican party ticket is to be successful in November next. Perhaps solid ground may be that occupied by those who expect the Federal Administration to work very hard for the success of that ticket, and who think that an influence favorable to such success will be exercised on the minds of many voters by the knowledge that the Administration favors the internal-improvement system. Virginia would like very much to see canals through the Alleghanies, and, as the Administration organ coolly remarks, she will be much more likely to see them if the State is "under Republican auspices" after November than if she remains Conservative. Democrats, it appears, deserve no canals and no prosperity. Colonel Hughes, the Republican candidate, was formerly the editor of a Confederate paper, but early became reconstructed and since the war has acted with the Republican party. His Conservative competitor, almost certain to be successful against him, as we suppose, has not yet been named.

Mr. Smith, who is said to be the chief manager of the Farmers' movement in Illinois, has been "interviewed" by the *Tribune* correspondent to whom we have once or twice before referred, and made several statements with regard to railroad "rings," some of which are interesting because they are true, and some because they are very much the opposite. He makes complaint that the cost of running the roads is unnaturally increased, in many instances, by illegitimate contracts in which the officers of the roads have an interest. For example, there is one road which has a patent "shoot" for coal at Kewanee, Illinois, where it takes 40 tons a day. The miner sells coal at the bank for \$1 75 a ton. It costs 25 cents to cart it to the "shoot," so that the price there ought to be \$2 a ton. Nevertheless, the company pays \$2 75. There must, Mr. Smith says, be "some cat under that meal." This is very true, but

Mr. Smith seems to be of opinion that the people who are directly injured by such operations as this are the farmers, when in reality it is the stockholders, the very stockholders against whose exorbitant income the farmers are crying out. If, whenever there was an illegitimate coal contract, the rates of freight were raised, the farmers might fairly complain. Mr. Smith actually believes that this is done. He says "the rates of freight and fare are fixed with reference to the dividends it is desired to make." This statement is monstrous, for, as every one knows, there are dozens of railroads in the country which declare regular dividends on their stock, and whose freight rates nevertheless do not materially differ from the freight rates of roads which never declare any dividends at all. According to Mr. Smith, the rates ought to rise with the dividends. With regard to the Granges, it should be noticed that one of their objects is the purchase, through co-operation, of farming and domestic machinery, without the intervention of middlemen, at wholesale prices.

A transaction to which some of the local newspapers give a very dubious complexion, and which, at any rate, is full of instruction to everybody, has just taken place in Boston. There are in Massachusetts about one hundred and fifty State constables, whose main business is to enforce the Prohibitory Law, so-called, and of these twelve are stationed in Boston. Last week these twelve were requested by the Commissioners to resign, and, all but one refusing to do so, they were all dismissed. Two explanations of this action have been offered. One is, that the law ought to be enforced, and that these men have been inefficient, perhaps corrupt, in enforcing it, and were rightly turned out. The other is as follows: These constables may be said to have had in their hands, and entirely at their mercy, every man of the hundreds and hundreds of liquor-dealers in Boston. They not only could demand a daily salary for leaving the dealer free to sell to his customers, but in a vast number of cases they could, just as easily as taking money, send him and his barkeepers to the House of Correction. Now, as it appears, the liquor-sellers of Boston are like their order in our other large cities, in being very important men in the political world. They take an interest in politics, and they control many voters of the class that go to the primary meetings. Just at present it is important that their influence should not be cast in favor of Butler, yet they must do as their constable orders them, and Butler, if all this story is true, some time since secured the constables. These latter, therefore, were dismissed, and Butler is probably not to have so complete a control of the caucuses as it had been supposed he would have. Heavy firing may be expected in the direction of Massachusetts during this month and next. It will be seen that what with the opposition of the moral elements of the community; the coldness or hostility of the capitalist element, which in Massachusetts can be extremely powerful; and the sharpness of a set of State politicians who for a dozen years have had the party machine at their finger-ends down to the minutest wire, and who would appear to be determined to use it, General Butler must work very hard if he means to win.

Whatever may be the political significance or insignificance of the removal of the Boston constables, the discussion attendant reveals some of the enormous difficulties that surround this question of prohibitory legislation, and which are quite as likely to surround it in other places as in Boston. As to the way in which the law has been enforced, the ex-constables' story presents some striking instances. Not long ago, a Commissioner called in a certain officer, and asked him why he did not shut up the bar of the Waverley House in Charlestown. He replied: "Give me an order to do so, and I will execute it." The gentleman in authority replied that the constable knew the law and was in duty bound to enforce it. But no written order came; "the officer never saw fit to make a prosecution in that place," and we suppose the Waverley

House goes on selling liquors to whosoever chooses to buy across the counter. Such is the condition of public opinion. Rather, such is the condition of the public opinion of one-half of the public: "About a month ago, Chief Boynton went down to the rooms of the constables, and told them they were not doing business enough in their line; they must bring in more 'nuisances' and 'common sellers,' so a number of raids were made for a short time, and public opinion, which the constables consider to have been the gauge of action, was appeased." A statute which the higher and lower officials charged with its execution bandy between them, one set saying, "You execute it," and the other replying, "Give us a written order; we are not going to have the responsibility shoved off on us," certainly is not an ornament to any American statute-book. Yet Massachusetts has for twenty years been busy with this sort of legislation, now doing it, now undoing it, and all the time the air has been full of charges of bribery on the part of liquor-dealers, perjury on the part of jurors, corruption on the part of prosecuting officers, political terrorism on the part of constables, commissioners, and party managers.

Some lurid light has been thrown on the domestic-service question in New York by the report of Messrs. Laimbeer and Stern on the subject of the "Free Labor Bureau." Few people, perhaps, know what this Bureau is. In 1869, it seems, by the insertion of a clause in the tax-levy of that year, the sum of \$10,000 was appropriated for the purpose of opening "a free intelligence-office for the poor and stranger seeking employment and information." The expenses of the Bureau gradually reached the sum of \$21,333 66, some eleven thousand dollars more than the appropriation. This, however, the Commissioners think, would not matter much "if the institution had become in reality a medium of exchange between the honest, well-meaning, and well-behaved servant and the classes in need of help." They state, with regret, however, that the expectations of those who hoped for this result were not fulfilled, and that examination reveals the fact that the institution has become the resort of bands of "nomadic servants," "that wander from place to place, from mistress to mistress, with no known intention to remain longer in one place than it may suit their temporary whim and purpose." With the existence of these hordes we were all familiar enough, but few people probably attributed their numbers and strength to its proper cause. The Commissioners recommend (and their recommendation has been adopted by the Commissioners of Charities and Corrections) that the Bureau shall be continued for three months under a semi-military discipline, and then, if it does not work better, that it be abolished. Hereafter, nomad cooks and waiters may expect to find themselves looked upon with increased reserve.

The reform government which was erected by Congress two years ago in the District of Columbia appears to be on its last legs. It has incurred a debt of some \$17,000,000, which, for its territory of sixty square miles, and small fixed population, is an enormous sum, and has begun to pay its subordinate employees in small bonds of the denomination of \$50, instead of ready money. It is rumored that the Governor and the Board of Public Works intend retiring when Congress meets; and an attempt will probably then be made to saddle the debt upon the United States, where, indeed, it in great measure belongs, for it is to Congress that the creation of this government was due. The most singular thing about the history of this matter is that ever since Congress set up the government its financial proceedings have been thoroughly exposed in the newspapers, and the gravest doubts thrown upon its credit. Nevertheless, it has had no difficulty in negotiating loans, and has continued to do so until the bottom of its credit has been fairly knocked out.

The English newspapers are beginning to notice the decline of public interest in Parliamentary debates. The debates, which used to be published in full and read with attention, are now sadly cut

down, and in some cases wholly omitted. This is not only true of the speeches of inferior orators, but of some of those of the leaders of the House of Commons. A discussion is going on in the English press as to the cause of this phenomenon; and the true conclusion would seem to be that the public takes less interest in the debates because they are really less interesting than they used to be. The multiplication of the interests of the reading public has become so great that, mostly for the sake of proportion, a newspaper is obliged to curtail its parliamentary, or in this country, congressional and legislative columns. Formerly the newspapers here were as eager to publish the legislative debates as they ever have been in England; now the merest summary is all that it is thought the public can be made to endure. The *Pall Mall Gazette* thinks that oratory itself is a thing of the past; that successful speeches do not, as they once did, secure votes; the explanation of this being, probably, that votes in the English Parliament are more and more influenced, as they are with us, by the party machinery outside than by mere human persuasion within.

Mr. Joseph Arch, the leader of the farm-laborers' movement in England, is coming to this country in August to see whether the United States affords a fit home for the over-crowded farm-laborers of England. At a recent "demonstration" at Newbury, he told his audience that,

"if he found there a home for the agricultural laborers of England, he should tell them so; but if he found that farmers in America were men who wanted both sides of the bargain, and that the crows were as black there as here, he would advise them to stay in England. If he found America was the true home of the working-man, where the son of the poor man could sit down by the children of the rich, write on the same slate, and read out of the same book, and where they could have full electoral power, he would stand on her shores until he had drained the laboring serfs out of England, in order that they might settle in the fruitful field of America, with its ninety millions of acres yet untitled; and he would do this until the farmers of England were made to bite the dust if they refused to treat their laborers like men."

Mr. Arch has so far shown himself a sensible man, and we dare say he will know how to take care of himself over here; but it is greatly to be hoped for our own sake and his, and for the sake of the persons whom he will represent, that the reception he meets may be of an intelligent and moral kind, and that he may not be allowed to fall a prey to swindlers and designing politicians.

On the 12th of last month, M. Beulé, the Minister of the Interior, whose press circular created a scandal a few weeks ago, was taken to task in the Assembly for having given notice that members might have their speeches printed and circulated, and for having afterwards withdrawn the word "circulated." M. Beulé replied that deputies had, by the rules of the Chamber, the right to have their speeches printed—and the Government would not object to the circulation of speeches, except such as might be calculated to disturb the country. This explanation was received with a good deal of noise; and shortly afterwards a perfect tumult was occasioned by the remarks of a colonial deputy, who complained of language used by M. De Kendrel in speaking of the Colonial Jury Bill. It seems that M. De Kendrel had been guilty of committing himself to two propositions, both undeniably true, but also full of meaning. The first was that there was some difference between French and English colonies; and the second, that there was no party in London which excited one class against another in the colonies. Confusion ensued, and was only ended by the Acting-President, M. Benoist D'Azy, putting on his hat. The sitting afterwards being resumed, a discussion took place on universal suffrage, which led to nothing at all but a great speech from Gambetta, and a declaration of the Minister of Justice that the ministry were not conspiring against universal suffrage, but, on the contrary, only desired to be the servants of order and liberty.

At the next sitting, the Minister of Justice brought in a bill conferring upon the Permanent Committee, which will sit during the

recess, the right of authorizing the prosecution of persons guilty of insulting the Assembly. This brought out strong protests from the left; M. Arago accusing the Government of desiring to establish a new Committee of Public Safety, and M. Gambetta exhorting the Government, or rather those supporters of the Government who are also Orleanists, to recollect their early devotion to the British constitution, and not to be such apostates to English traditions as to make an attempt on the liberty of the press. Other speakers followed M. Gambetta, and a stormy scene ensued; but finally, according to the report, amid much roaring and gesticulation, the Government carried its point and the bill was declared "urgent." These turbulent debates would not in themselves be of much importance, if they were not indications that the existing Government begins to feel its strength more and more. At this distance, a parliamentary discussion of the sweetness and beauty of free speech, in an assembly composed of gentlemen who are unable to discuss the general subject itself without getting into such a tumult of passion that they are silenced by their own noise, is rather amusing.

Italian affairs have been unexciting since the ten days' ministerial crisis beginning on the 25th of June. The retirement of Sella was brought about by an ineradicable difference between himself and the Minister of War, in which both were technically in the right, though Sella was probably the less discreet. In spite of the delay of Minghetti in forming a new cabinet, not the least disturbance took place in Rome, nor did any occur when it appeared that no attempt had been made by the Premier to form a coalition with the Left, to whose accidental co-operation he owed his position. Signors Lanza and Sella, so far from seeking the arms of the Opposition, assisted materially their successor in his difficult task, and furnished an additional proof of the good sense and patriotism of the present race of Italian statesmen. Scialoja, the able Minister of Public Instruction, Visconti-Venosta, distinguished for his prudent conduct of foreign affairs, and the Minister of War, Ricotti, remain in the Government. Of the strength of the new ministry it is difficult to judge, but those friendly to it fear that Minghetti, who, for the present, has charge of the finances, may experience the same difficulty with his colleague, Ricotti, that Sella did. He is, however, possessed of greater tact than his predecessor, and probably came to an understanding with his War Minister before inviting him to hold over. For the rest, parties are in much the same state of flux and dissolution that they are in the United States, and, as here, questions of the public debt, the currency, and the economical administration of the Government occupy the first place in the concerns of the present and of the immediate future. The material interests of the kingdom, and no longer general principles of unification and church and state, will determine the composition and policy of parties.

The part taken by the clergy in the funeral ceremonies of Rattazzi has drawn from the Pope a sharp censure, though it is alleged that his remarks were doctored in the report, and made stronger than they were in reality. The offending priests have not ventured to assert their innocence, and their apology has furnished a petty triumph to the Jesuits. The contemplated excommunication, on account of the Religious Corporations Acts will, it is announced, not descend to the detail of mentioning names, but will blast the adversaries of the Church in a lump, in phraseology little different from that found so effectual on previous occasions. A fresh cry of persecution has been raised on account of an order from the Prefect of Perugia, who simply acted under instructions from the Government, prohibiting the usual August pilgrimage to Assisi. This being a cholera year, he alleges a sanitary necessity for putting a stop to what, on considerations of police, is also a source of public peril. The people of Assisi are not debarred from visiting the shrine of St. Francis as often as they see fit.

CANADA.

THE little tempest which has been raging in the British province of Manitoba, though it may not involve a question of international law, will serve to direct some attention toward the peculiar condition of the country or provinces lying along our northern frontier. So far as the arrest or kidnapping of Gordon is concerned, the question, we are inclined to think, is little more than one of common law. The privilege of bail is an important one, carefully fostered by the common law, and the benefit arising from it is all on one side, and the relations between a prisoner and his surety are of an honorary and obligatory character; for all of which reasons, the common law makes all possible intendments in favor of the surety, allowing him to retake the person on bail at any time or place, and treating the relation between them as a *quasi* agreement to that effect. The foundation of the Gordon case, therefore, is not an offence against the laws of this country, by which our Government becomes a party, but an agreement between two men, to the end that if the one would go bail, and thereby enable the other to be released from arrest, the latter would surrender himself whenever and wherever requested. In extradition cases, the matter is between governments, and the obligation arises from treaty stipulations. Here the matter is between two individuals, and the obligation, if any, springs from their voluntary relations. The question, therefore, is simply whether the courts of a country will allow such an agreement to be enforced when it arose within another jurisdiction, and whether they will aid a foreigner in enforcing it just as they will aid him to carry out any other agreement not repugnant to their own law. Some of the newspapers have spoken of such an arrest as valid if made in another State, but as illegal if made beyond the bounds of the United States. We do not, however, perceive the grounds upon which this distinction must rest. The obligation upon a State to allow such an arrest must be imposed either by the Constitution of the United States or by ordinary international comity. The Constitution extends only to criminals and persons escaping from servitude, and therefore does not impose any such obligation. If such arrests have been held valid, it must have been upon the doctrine of the common law and ordinary principles of international comity—a doctrine and principles as applicable to Minnesota and Manitoba as to New York and New Jersey. The excitement at Fort Garry seems to be chiefly due to a fellow-feeling for a vagabond like Gordon, and it is noticeable how little the Canadian press seems to care about the matter. Nevertheless, these border difficulties are never without the chance of growing into international complications. In this case, there may have been some criminal intent underlying the attempt of a surety to retake his escaped principal, and the American consul may have mixed himself up in the matter in an extra-official way. The judges of Manitoba have committed the “kidnappers” for trial before the “Court of Queen’s Bench,” and have refused bail; and the affair suggests some enquiry as to the courts and government which will have to deal, at least in the first instance, with the prisoners’ case.

The name Canada has been withdrawn from the old French province, and applied to the new federation of British provinces, which now forms a government hardly less than independent. Invested with power to make laws, to coin money, to enter into commercial and postal treaties, and even to levy duties upon British imports, yet with its executive officers directly under the control of the Crown, and its judiciary subject to the review of the Privy Council, it is something more than a province and less than a nationality, to which the term “Dominion” has been appropriately applied. In withdrawing the old historic name of Canada from two of the provinces and extending it to all, good taste and judgment were shown; for it is a name original and appropriate, and full of old heroic and religious associations. In renaming the younger or western province, it was also natural that it should take the melodious Indian name of the great lake which lies beside it; but we may question the propriety of giving the name of Quebec, which was and always has been strictly local, to the entire province of Lower

Canada, and it would seem as if the designation of Ontario for the upper province might have suggested for the lower that of St. Lawrence, or the original, Cadaraqui.

The political position of Canada has always been something of an anomaly. Of all the British provinces at the time of the American Revolution, Canada, it must seem to the historian, ought to have been the first to revolt. It was a conquered province. The conquest was not yet twenty years old, so that the youth of twenty who witnessed the siege of 1759, and saw the house of the Jesuit fathers taken for English barracks in 1760, was still a young man when he heard from Concord the shot “heard round the world.” The conquered were a people differing from their conquerors in race, language, and religion, the three elements above all others which should have kept alive the fires of discontent. Finally, their countrymen were the friends and allies of the revolutionists, and had been for generations and centuries the enemies of the English. The first settlements in Canada and New England were due to religious causes, and both had been maintained against the same extraordinary hardships in countries identical in the rigors of soil and climate. Each should have produced a hardy race equally intent on the maintenance of their rights. But the quiet contentment of the French peasant, his dislike of change and indifference to constitutional principles, were never so completely demonstrated as by his conduct at that time. One race deliberately went into seven years of war for a principle; the other were passively loyal to their new rulers, because they found their taxes lighter and their personal liberty more assured than they had ever been before. The peasant (or rather small proprietary) character of the population extends to all of the provinces, and may explain the subsequent apathy in matters of government; for in 1861, out of a male population of about 750,000, there were not less than 333,604 farmers, and only 160,702 laborers.

The traveller in Canada at the present time is generally struck with the want in the people of a sense of nationality. Of the true provincial spirit, with its petty vanity and still smaller prejudices, there is undoubtedly plenty; but the majority of the people do not seem to know to whom they belong. In the oldest province, a large majority are French-speaking, with French customs, and to-day governed under old French laws. A part are English, keeping up a close connection with the mother country, and manifestly feeling that politically they have hardly got beyond it. Not a small part, particularly among the active, money-making classes, are Americans; and a number of native-born Yankees, “naturalized” into British subjects, are generally to be found in the Canadian Parliament. The least prominent are the English-speaking natives of the provinces. Undoubtedly, the same causes which have operated to make the American what he is, are operating physically and morally with them. The English characteristics of speech seem to drop off, especially among the lower and middle classes, so that it needs a practised ear to detect a difference in pronunciation or intonation between the American and the Canadian. Frontier life, too, seems to produce the same swaggering, powerful, uncivilized creature as with us; and we note in the forensic efforts of Manitoba the same “hifalutin” so familiar on our own side of the border, and the ungracious incident that Mr. Attorney-General Clarke, though holding a commission from the viceroy of the Queen, cut his opponent’s argument short by throwing our national utensil, a spit-box, in his face, and calling him a dirty puppy, in open court.

But so far as national influence can be traced, it is apparent that the most potent is that of the United States rather than of England. The traveller’s trunks are termed baggage and not luggage. In his drives he finds that vehicles turn out for each other to the right and not to the left. The places where he makes his purchases are known as stores and not as shops. And the money of the country, coined in its own mint, has become dollars and cents, and the pounds, shillings, and pence of the mother country are as unknown in the daily traffic of Quebec as of New York.

But it is most notably in the form of government in the provinces that the influence of the United States has been felt. The model

after which the federation was framed was confessedly the American Constitution, varying from it only so far as was necessary to maintain "the Sovereign of Great Britain as its sole and only head." Hence it reminds us in its fundamental principle of that plan which Burke proposed a century ago; and the same experiment is now beginning which, if it had been begun in 1773, might have resulted in the United States being now a magnificent province of the British Empire. But, notwithstanding its variations from the model, the characteristic of the federation is the American idea of government; or, as was said by Sir John Macdonald in some of the earliest consultations on the subject, "the remedy was a federal union of all the provinces, local matters being committed to local bodies, and matters common to all to a general legislature, constituted on the well-understood principles of federal government." In carrying out this idea and coupling it with that of continued fealty to the British sovereign, the entire executive of the provinces was kept directly or indirectly under the control of the crown. The Governor-General is in the first place appointed by the crown, and it is he who appoints the governors of the different provinces, who are styled lieutenant-governors, and paid by the general government. As in England and America, the legislative power is vested in two houses; and as in both England and America, the lower house is elected directly by the people. But the upper house is a curious mixture of the two countries, taking from the Senate to a limited extent the element of provincial apportionment, and from the House of Lords, so far as practicable, the aristocratic element of appointment by the crown and of holding the position for life. How legislators holding office for life on the one hand, but selected from the most respectable and intelligent ranks of society on the other, will work on American soil, especially when the greater part of them become old men, whose political prominence is connected with bygone questions, will be an interesting subject of future political study. But the federation differs materially from our own government in having but one judicial system. The plan, however, is ingeniously flexible, and designed to administer both local and general law. The judges are appointed by the Governor-General; they hold office for life; they are paid by the general government, and are removable only by the concurrent action of the federal Parliament and the Governor-General. Yet they can be appointed only from the bar of the province in which they are to serve, and they then become to all intents judges of that province. As to the laws which they administer, each province can enact its own in civil matters; but there is one criminal system for all. The arrangement is as though we had a single criminal code in the United States, and the judges appointed by the President administered both Federal and State laws. We perceive greater unity and simplicity in the plan, but are not prepared to say that it is better adapted for the United States than our own.

While there are many resemblances between our own federal history and that of the Dominion, there are also some contrasts. In America, the colonies were welded into nationality by the fires of a prolonged and painful war; in Canada, the provinces have drifted together in the progress of events. With us, the moving cause was the redress of grievances; with the provinces, it has been the expectation of improvement in material things. The American revolutionists took up arms to maintain principles and rights which had been disregarded by the British Government; but much more than the colonists of 1775 asked for has been accorded by the British Government at the mere request of Canada. The separation of the two countries with us was the work of the weaker, but now it is the mother country which is looking towards separation, and the Dominion which is most anxious to avert it. Whether that separation will come or be for ever postponed will depend on America, her growth and advancement and relations with Great Britain. Whether in case of separation Canada will be absorbed in the United States, or grow into a great and independent nation, is beyond useful conjecture. But let it be understood as elements of the problem that the new Dominion has now a population not differing much from

that of the State of New York, but greater than that of Holland, Denmark, Switzerland, or Greece, and with a territory larger than that of the United States and nearly equal to the whole of Europe.

HOPES AND FEARS OF THE AMERICAN ABROAD.

THE *Anglo-American Times* of July 19 contains a very sensible article entitled "How the Republic gets a Bad Name," from which the casual reader would be likely to infer that any American who goes abroad just now might as well prepare to have himself looked upon as presumptively belonging to the class known to the police as habitual criminals.

"If an individual lost no opportunity of letting it be known that he was a bad man; that he cheated when he got the chance; that he was an adept in creating these chances; that he could deceive and rob as a pickpocket, or bludgeon and rob as a highwayman; that he was without principle, and could slander as readily as steal—ought that man to be surprised and annoyed if he is spoken of abroad as wicked and one to be avoided? Were he to urge that what is said of him was untrue, the answer is—'You said it yourself!' Nor would the reply be satisfactory if he added—'Oh! that was myself in controversy, not myself in fact.' The great daily journals of the United States have been doing all they can to spread the notion abroad that the American community is dishonest; is not to be trusted commercially; electing judges who sell justice, and legislatures who sell measures. Two American parties, engaged in a furious political controversy, are endeavoring to heap opprobrium on each other; and as the nation may be broadly said to be divided into these two, when each is accused of the deepest corruption, the sight presented abroad, as seen through such spectacles, is not gratifying to American pride and self-respect."

Such charges as these are grave matters. The newspaper we have just quoted very truly says that there are two causes at work which produce in the minds of foreigners an exaggerated opinion of American dishonesty; first, the relatively greater amount of business done with the United States than with other countries; second, the spirit of exaggeration and want of self-restraint of the leading organs of public opinion.

In the first of these explanations there is no doubt a great deal of truth. The commercial relations of America with London, Frankfurt, Berlin, and Hamburg are so close that thousands of Englishmen and Germans are compelled to follow current events here with a great deal of care. They hear almost as soon as we do of our railroad frauds, bank suspensions, legislative or judicial scandals, and, reading of them, very likely in scathing editorials, form exaggerated conclusions about the country in which such things take place. To take, for instance, London. London is the great lending market of the world. The United States is a country of borrowers. The transactions of London with the United States probably equal the transactions of London with all the countries outside the British Empire.

"We have, then, the United States on one hand, and all the countries in which these centres invest and lend on the other; and as a consequence, to be as bad, the shortcomings in the United States ought to be equal to the total of all the others. But no such calculation is ever made; for if a railway yields no dividend, if a State stops payment, if a mine proves a swindle in the United States, the name of the Republic is called out as a defaulter, and this name reiterated, leads to the impression that there is more of such default in the United States than in any other borrowing country; and so there is. But the calculation should be, the United States against all these countries put together, and then, a fair average being struck, it would be shown that, instead of being more, there was less default in proportion there than elsewhere."

This calculation, which we believe to be quite just, ought certainly to be some consolation to the depressed American travelling public. Of the second explanation we cannot say so much; not that it is not true that the press of this country is wanting in self-restraint and filled with a spirit of exaggeration, as because the acknowledgment of this fact does not seem to mend matters. The press does exaggerate and distort; but at the same time, the press being the recognized organ of public opinion, the natural inference would be that the public itself was wanting in self-restraint and filled with a spirit of exaggeration and immorality. "After a foreigner had glanced through a file of a New York daily, and read a record of the crime, the denunciation of Congress for a salary grab, the closing scene of the reform legislature at Albany, the history of a culminated 'corner' in Wall Street, the charge against some judge, and the announcement that a State will not pay its

half-yearly interest; also a series of leaders declaring the nation to be on the high-road to disruption from the prevalence of corruption, is it surprising that the man laughs outright when he is told, 'Yes, there is truth in all the paper says; yet the community, as a whole, is the most moral, religious, and upright in the world; the most progressive, and with the best backbone?'"

It is, nevertheless, perfectly true that the impression derived from the file of the New York daily by the foreigner is incorrect, as any one may convince himself, if he chooses to attempt so laborious an experiment, by living for a short time in this very city itself, and comparing the actual life he sees with the impressions of life derived from his "daily." He will certainly find that this period of greed, and this era of the pistol and the knife, has been painted by his ambitious editor darker than it is.

The truth is that American public opinion, which has always been slow to move, and very powerful when once in motion, has been in the years which have succeeded the war undergoing a slow but gigantic change. The change is nothing less than a change from an attitude of self-laudation to an attitude of self-criticism and self-denunciation, which finds its expression of course in the press. If the foreigner who finds such conclusive proof of the rascality of Americans in the editorials of his American daily will turn back to an old file of the same daily, he will find that a few years—a very few years ago—its tone was quite different; he will find that the same press was then confidently boasting to the world of the possession by America, to a point of superabundance, of the very virtues which it now denies to her altogether. This change marks the difference between two points in American history which, we believe, when the whole of it comes to be written, will be seen to be as wide apart as the period of the foundation of the government after the Revolution was from the period of colonial dependence which preceded it. A conservative period of self-examination, distrust, criticism, censure, and we may sometimes say self-contempt, is different indeed from a period of mutual admiration and buoyant hopefulness. The application of this to the condition of the press is obvious. Before the war and during the war, it was the function of the press to blow trumpets, beat drums, and sing hosannas over the progress of the country; since the war, it has been the function of the press, which it has more or less clearly perceived, to do the exact opposite. On both occasions it has run into extremes. When a man is young and full of hope, and has brilliant prospects in life, he exaggerates the opportunities of the future in every possible way. When he has seen sorrow and adversity, and discovered by experience that there are no royal roads to success, he is very apt to begin to doubt his own capacity, to criticise his past efforts, and he is fortunate indeed if he does not exchange for a tone of boastful conceit a tone of almost equally objectionable distrust and cynicism. If most men of mature years published every morning a bulletin of their feelings about themselves for the benefit of the public, it may very much be doubted whether the public would form a favorable opinion of their character.

But this is the very thing which for us the press is all the time doing. In other countries there are a thousand things which prevent a system of public confession; in England, for instance, both Parliament and the courts have a very strong hold on the press, and rigidly repress discussion of a sort which is very common with us. The *Pall Mall Gazette* was the other day obliged to apologize for referring to certain members of Parliament as "ultramontanes," and ascribing to an "ultramontane" cause their political activity. Throughout the Tichborne case, the press has been kept silent by the rule that discussion of pending suits is contempt of court. There can be little doubt that, were it not for these rules, there would be many revelations of English corruption which would be by no means flattering to English society. Owing to the absence of these restraints, journalism here has a much more unrestricted organic growth as a trade than it has in England, and is governed much more by the laws of trade than by considerations of respect for the powers that be or fear of punishment. The American press

may always be expected to follow the market closely, and the market just now—for reasons which we have just pointed out, and which we consider creditable rather than discreditable—is one of inerrimation and exposure. There is no doubt that the government of New York is to-day a more honestly administered government than it has been for years; if it had not been for the existence of a keenly competitive press, we doubt whether we should be able to say as much.

But the whole discussion is one on which it is possible to bear too heavily. There is no accusation which is so easy to make, or so difficult to make with a clear understanding of the meaning of the term, as that an entire country is dishonest. When the accusation is made against America, it may mean any one of many different things. It may mean that the country appears to be dishonest when tried by the standard applied in the country criticising; it may mean that it appears dishonest when tried by the standard usually applied to other people by persons not wholly disinterested; it may mean that we are dishonest when tried by domestic standards set up by ourselves, and wholly unlike those made use of by the observer. Again, the dishonesty may refer to small but universal cheating; or it may refer to great but circumscribed frauds; it may refer to bribery at elections, and it may refer to the adulteration of goods. Any one who is familiar with the accusations of dishonesty brought against the French and Italians for the first cause, to say nothing of the second, and against the English by the English themselves for the third and fourth, will be likely to hesitate some time before he indulges in wholesale abuse of the American or any other nation.

VACATIONS.

MANY of our readers are now actually in the midst of their summer holiday; whether by the sea, with its wholesome breath in their lungs, and its rhythm falling on their ear; or among the hills and roads, with the pines and the bayberries to flavor the air, and the mighty sun of August at work regaling their eyes and making their spirits exult, instead of meting out to them the nefarious treatment that it gives to those who stay in the town. These latter will be laboring away, lifeless, pale, and peevish, cursing the day that they were born into a world where summers are so hot, and business so unrelenting, and where yet, as Miss Berry said, we are doomed to cling to a life even while we find it unendurable. Fortunate for the one class, doubly unfortunate for the other, that they are; and fortunate in either case are we in being able to choose this time in which to urge that, for the relief of man's estate, the custom of summer vacation should become as nearly universal as possible.

That it is becoming more and more common among us there can be no doubt. Twenty-five years ago, clerks and young employees hardly ever expected a holiday, except as a matter of particular favor. Now a fortnight of freedom in the year is getting to be regularly understood as a part of their contract. A fortnight is but half enough; but we must remember that the employers are still of a race that can meet appeals for more by venting reminiscences of their apprenticeship when they were lucky if they got a fortnight's rest in all the seven years. That was a time when we lived under the dispensation of the favorite American proverb—no half truth even, but an invention of Sabbathless and unvacationed Satan—"Better wear out than rust out." But of those who repeated it with most faith, how many have since had enforced leisure to repent their shortsightedness. Men who, thirty-five years ago, thought with pride of their thoroughgoing "devotion" to business, and nothing but business, would now, for most cogent reasons, and for more reasons than one, be not a little ashamed of it. Who that has travelled in Europe is not familiar with the type of the broken-down American business-man, sent abroad to recruit his collapsed nervous system? With his haggard, hungry mien, unfitted by life-long habit for taking any pleasure in passive contemplation, and with too narrow a culture to be interested in the historical or æsthetic side of what meets his eye, he tries to cheat the *tedium vitæ* by a feverish locomotion, and seems to draw a ghostly comfort from a peevish and foolish criticism of everything he meets—the tyranny of despots, the dinginess of the old paintings, and the mendacity of the natives, the absence of the ballot-box, the crookedness of the streets, the fearful waste of raw material in walls, harnesses, and conveyances, and the barbarousness of the window fastenings. These Americans have been brought up to measure a man solely by what he acquires, or at best what he effects, hardly at all by what

he is. The narrowness of this view is partly transient, but probably to some extent a matter of physical temperament as well. We are too strenuous to merely enjoy for any length of time with a good conscience. If we could act up to Goethe's verses it would be well for us:

"Tages Arbeit! Abends Gäste!
Saure Wochen! Frohe Feste!
Sei dein künft'g Zauberwort."

But those verses could never have been written by a Yankee. The shop-keeper in Germany, who for five or six months in the year spends a good part of every Sunday in the open air, sitting with his family for hours under green trees over coffee or beer and Pumpernickel, and who breaks into *Achs* and *Wunderschöns* all the week as he recalls it, has a sort of absolute belief and contentment in the fine weather, and the leaves, and the air, and himself as a mere part of it all, that lies as an immense reservoir of refreshment behind his working-day consciousness, and keeps him green to an age when his American brethren are many of them little better than dried herrings. These times of satisfied static existence are what he works to gain. Many of us would say so too; but we have so grown to the harness that when the hour of leisure comes we are unable to use it. The means have murdered the end. Our ceaseless scheming for the future has undermined for us all sense of reality in the present. We cannot rest with the present alone for our object. The fact is that every man who possibly can should force himself to a holiday of a full month in the year, whether he feel like taking it or not. First, for the reason we have considered hitherto—that that capacity for irresponsible enjoyment which is like air to space in the character, may not become wholly atrophied within him—though many cannot and many will not treat this as a "practical" reason. But second, for the reason that all must consider practical, namely, tone of mind and health of body. No man, were he composed of catgut and whalebone, can work for five years unremittingly at the same kind of work with impunity. None can work ten years even at a very varied occupation. One year may make no difference, a second and a third may follow, and the subject not suffer consciously. But ten years of the two systems will turn out two different human beings at their end. The patient may be loth to get away, but this is a distinctly morbid symptom, a cramp-like closure of the mind upon the subject of its cares, which should be an imperative signal to some friend to come and push him willy-nilly out of doors. We have ourselves known an ambitious law student who, when starting on his wedding tour, felt as if he could not afford to leave his law books at home, but put them into his trunk and read them at Niagara Falls.

An employer of labor who should see to it that each man and woman working for him got a solid month of holiday in the course of the year, would, we feel convinced, make money by it in the long run; for there is hardly an occupation, from sawing wood to writing poetry, in which the mental state of the workman does not influence the result; and wherever the mental factor exists the man will do more and better work in eleven months than in twelve. Of course some occupations are so automatic that quality of work does not tell much, and in others there is much waiting, the quantity performed depending less on the laborer's power than on what turns up for him to do. In these cases the economic advantage of a holiday would not rigorously apply. But even here more cheerful service, fewer interruptions from ailments, and fewer changes from discontent would be secured. And if this seems chimerical, let it be recollected in how short a time employers have been educated up to a fortnight of the month for which we argue.

As for the time of the vacation, the warm months should of course be taken by towns-people. We are glad to notice the constant increase, in the Northeastern States at least, of the practice of camping out. It was, some time ago, recommended for its economy to persons who could ill afford a hotel sojourn, all the extra outlay needed being that for transportation, with a couple of tents and india-rubber blankets, *plus*, perhaps, some fishing-tackle and an axe, all of which will last for many seasons. Many artisans, for example, who could afford to take the time, cannot yet afford to pay for their board in addition. For such, if they be of an active and "handy" turn, camping out on the shore, or on some mountain side, would seem to be just the thing. Two or three families might then club together and do it in handsome style, set up a cooking-stove, for example, and hire a boat from the nearest settlement, if by the water. The fact is, that every one is capable of enjoying this kind of life intensely for a few weeks. It may be truly called the normal life of man, if by the phrase we understand that life which most men in most ages have led. For, however civilized and far-plotting we may have become, to dwell in the open air, with no plans or cares beyond to-morrow, has been the lot of our ancestors, brute or human, for receding centuries of generations. And for us to dip into it again awakens half-extinguished feelings of delight, washes away the cobwebs and smooths out the wrinkles from the care-worn mind, as surely as sleep makes the weary body fresh

again. In this life we become so good-natured and indifferent to our troubles that we hardly recognize ourselves. We remember thinking as we saw last summer the camp in which the president of one of our universities was passing his vacation, how rational a plan it was for men of affairs who see plenty of their kind throughout the year, and to whom a little solitude is not unpleasant for a change. And we shall not soon forget a party we stumbled upon this very season in the woods near a certain shore in Massachusetts. We had noticed a couple of tents by the rocks ten minutes before, and here, stretched on the grass in the verdurous sunlight that filtered through the boughs above, lay their inhabitants. The man sat against a tree-trunk, singing a song, his wife and little girl recumbent opposite, while his sister, with her own hair down her back, and a long tress of commercial hair waved about in her hand to keep time, reclined with her head upon his knee. No one stirred as we came up and held parley, and, in fact, the pretty young lady with the switch of hair seemed too unconscious, and too beatified even, to raise her half-closed eyelids and examine who we were. Unfashionable, but for once happy! with the deep, good natures of the fauns and nymphs of fable.

"There is of our acquaintance," as the old books used to say, "a pleasant gentleman," who is so enthusiastic on this subject of vacations, that he professes himself ready for a form of communism in which the government shall guarantee to every citizen one month of freedom in the year, which the citizen may take year by year, or let accumulate, if he choose, say for six years, and then spend six months in Europe. Thus, he says, we shall have organized a symbol of that ideal emancipation of which poets dream, and which the pious crave and hope for. Outside of its month, let humanity sweat and ache as best it may, he says; he cares not. This, of course, is hardly serious. But is not a step in the direction of it feasible? Why should not rich men desirous of doing good with their money, instead of endowing mere schools or churches with it, bequeath a portion of it in some such way as this? Let the interest be assigned to a number of the doctors, clergymen, and men of affairs in the town, who come into relations with most human beings, and let these persons allot every season to a sufficient number of individuals who otherwise would have to stay at home, enough money to enable them to pass three or four weeks in the country. If care were taken that none but the needy and deserving got the award, there could hardly be a more profoundly beneficial form of charity. There are hundreds of persons of both sexes in every town whom a month of idleness in the year, far from the scene of their cares, would suffice to keep on the right side of the boundary-line between invalidism and health, and who without it would soon drift over to the wrong side, and thence speedily further; hundreds, too, whom nothing but the lack of fifty dollars or so holds prisoners. One hundred thousand dollars properly invested would set free every year no fewer than fourteen hundred such persons! Grasp with your imagination, O wealthy reader! if you can, the mass of happiness and sanity of mind which is implied in that proposition, and then try to do your duty. We have done ours.

Correspondence.

LAWFUL AND UNLAWFUL EXPANSION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have so long been in the habit of having the *Nation* do my thinking on all social, political, and financial matters, that it rarely occurs to me to question your conclusions; and so I have been as ready as any other backwoods dabbler in currency questions to speak contemptuously of the financial ability of Uncle Boutwell and Cousin Richardson, and especially to denounce their assumption of the power to expand or contract the volume of the currency at will. And this notwithstanding that I have diligently read in Mr. Henry Clews's advertising circulars his reasoning in support of the frequently expressed hope that the Secretary of the Treasury will stand ready to use this power—discreetly, of course—as the state of the money market may demand.

Some comments of the *Pall Mall Gazette*, however, on Mr. Lowe's proposed amendment to the Bank Act of 1844, have suggested two or three questions, which I venture to put in the most respectful spirit of enquiry:

1. In what respect would the issue by Mr. Richardson of a part of the \$44,000,000 of reserve legal tenders, for the purpose, say, of relieving a real and widespread commercial panic, differ from the action which takes place in England when the Bank Act is suspended for a similar purpose?

2. Has there been any difference of opinion as to the expediency, not to say necessity, of such illegal action under the circumstances?

The necessity seemed so great in the last instance of overissue by the

Bank of England that, according to Mr. Patterson in his work 'On Finance,' the representative of the Bank, at the conference with the Chancellor of the Exchequer, weakly affected the bravado of indifference, knowing that it was perfectly certain that the Bank Act must be suspended.

3. Is it not, moreover, essential to the successful working of such remedial measure that its use shall depend upon an entirely uncertain contingency, such as the discretion of one man, or a limited number of men, in order that its effects may not be discounted by speculators and others, and so made nugatory? Mr. Lowe proposes to vest this discretionary power in four men, the provision of his bill being that whenever the First Lord of the Treasury and the Chancellor of the Exchequer, upon consultation with the Governor and the Deputy-Governor of the Bank of England, are satisfied that certain conditions exist (conditions, by the way, that are not demonstrable, and the existence or non-existence whereof must be determined by the judgment of these officials), then they may empower the Issue Department of the Bank to make a temporary issue of notes in excess of the authorized issue. "Or, in other words," as the writer in the *Gazette* puts it, "they may issue paper money beyond the limits of safety, and lend it to the public."

4. Is it not, also, a debatable question whether this power should not be used as a preventive rather than as a tardy relief after ruin has overtaken many perfectly solvent houses, unless we take our stand wholly on the non-interference theory of government?

5. The fact that we may have a weak and squeezable Secretary of the Treasury, while England just now has not, and that Mr. Clews may be but an indifferent substitute for the Governor of the Bank of England as a counsellor in such an emergency, may make all the difference between a beneficial and a mischievous use of this extraordinary power, but does it affect the principle?—Very respectfully,

E. R. LELAND.

EAU CLAIRE, Wis., July 16, 1873.

[1. It would differ in this, that Mr. Richardson would, without authority of law, increase the volume of irredeemable paper currency, while Mr. Lowe would, with the authority of law, permit the Bank of England to issue more notes redeemable in coin on demand. In other words, the restraint of redeemability would still continue to exist in the latter case; it does not exist in the former.

2. There has; a controversy has raged for thirty years over the merits of the restriction which compels the Bank to hold coin for all notes it issues over \$75,000,000, its opponents maintaining that inasmuch as the restriction is always removed by an act of arbitrary power during a panic, it is practically useless, and the Bank might better be allowed to exercise its own discretion.

3. The theory of the Lowe bill is that machinery can be created beforehand for indicating the existence of a panic and measuring the extent of the mutual distrust in which a panic consists. This seems to us impossible. The rise of the rate of interest does not measure it; it only measures the Bank's estimate of it. This, *mutatis mutandis*, would be true of all other preappointed signs or standards. The only advantage of the bill which we are able to see is the removal of the scandal of law-breaking which has hitherto attended all suspensions of the Bank Act.

4. It is; but to use it as a preventive would practically nullify the law altogether. If the minister said a panic was impending, and that he must hinder it, nobody could ever question his decision, because there would be no means of testing its correctness.

5. It does not; but we must admit that there seems to be an enormous difference between Henry Clews and the Governor and Deputy-Governor of the Bank of England as financial advisers.—ED. NATION.]

A DIFFICULT PASSAGE IN SHAKESPEARE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: One of Shakespeare's most troublesome passages, as you hardly need be told, is in "All's Well that Ends Well," Act iv., Scene 2. I refer to the dialogue between *Bertram* and *Diana*, where the former, with all his art and ardor, urges his lawless suit upon the latter. For reasons that need not now be stated, an arrangement has previously been made between *Diana* and *Helena*, whereby *Diana*, after enough of resistance to blind the eyes of her wooer, is to make believe that she accepts his vows. Then, just as she is on the point of seeming to yield, she says, in the original folio:

"I see that men may *cope's* in such a *scarre*,
That we'll forsake ourselves."

All the modern editors, so far as I know, from Rowe downwards, have given up *rope's* or *ropes* as an unquestionable corruption, and most of them have substituted *hopes*. Rowe reads, "Make *hopes* in such affairs"; Malone, "Hopes in such a scene"; Collier's second folio, "Hopes in such a suit"; Staunton, "Hopes in such a snare"; Dyce, "Hopes in such a case"; and Singer, "Hopes in such a *scarre*," explaining that "a *scarre* here signifies any surprise or alarm, what we would now write a *scare*"; which, I must confess, seems to me well-nigh absurd. White rejects all the fore-cited corrections, and prints just as in the original, "Make *rope's* in such a *scarre*," but without pretending to understand it or offering any explanation of it. Perhaps I ought to state further, that Mr. W. N. Lettsom proposes "Hopes in such a *scape*"; while the late Mr. W. W. Williams, in the *Parthenon* for September 6, 1862, would read:

"I see that men may *cope's* in such a *sort*,
That we'll forsake ourselves,"

and supports this reading with great ingenuity and fertility of argument, of course taking *cope's* as a contraction of *cope us*.

Thus much for the matter as it has hitherto stood. Now, it seems to me well worth considering at least whether, after all, *ropes* may not be the right reading.

It is well known to Shakespearian scholars that in the poet's time *in* and *into* were often used indiscriminately, and that the poet has many instances of *in* where our present idiom would require *into*. So in "Measure for Measure," ii. 3: "A gentlewoman of mine, who, falling *in* the flames of her own youth, hath blister'd her report." And in "King Richard III.," i. 2: "But first I'll turn yon fellow *in* his grave"; also in i. 3: "You do me shameful injury, falsely to draw me *in* these vile suspects." Again, in "Coriolanus," iii. 2: "Although I know thou hadst rather follow thine enemy *in* a fiery gulf." The same usage, as is well known to Biblical students, occurs in the English Bible, as I think it also does in the English Prayer-Book.

The question, then, is whether such may not be the case in the passage under consideration. I am much inclined to think it is. And I suspect there is, withal, some reference implied to what the poet elsewhere calls *ropery* and *rope-tricks*; that is, *roggeries*. So that *Diana's* meaning may be, "I see that men *weave ropes* or *roggeries* into such a *maze* as to catch and subdue us in spite of ourselves." She then proceeds, accordingly, to feign compliance with *Bertram's* solicitations, as if she were really ensnared by them, and the result is that she ensnares him.

In addition, I have but to ask a place for the above in the *Nation* as the most suitable medium for calling the attention of our Shakespearians to the matter.

N.

BOSTON, July 21, 1873.

Notes.

FROM a circular sent us by Mr. Henry Blackburn, to whom we owe the Exhibition of English Water-colors in this city last winter, we learn that he is engaged upon the collection to be made for a similar exhibition here December 1. English artists desiring to be represented on that occasion are admonished to present their works at the Egyptian Hall, Piccadilly, by November 4. In a letter to the *Athenæum* on the subject of the former exhibition, Mr. Blackburn states that the sales at the Academy of Design amounted to nearly \$5,000—the total valuation of the English collection being less than \$20,000.—No. 44 of the Journal of the Berlin Geographical Society (New York: L. W. Schmidt) contains an account of Dr. Nachtigal's important journey through equatorial Africa, from Kanem to Borku, illustrated by a sketch-map forwarded with the narrative by the traveller himself. The same number will also be found interesting as giving on two sheets no less than 14 maps of the comparative knowledge of African geography, from Ptolemy (A.D. 130) to Livingstone, Stanley, Rohlf, Schweinfurth, and Nachtigal. An article on the Chinese province of Kwang-tung, in Petermann's *Mittheilungen* for June 25, is accompanied by a good-sized map of the region from native and European sources. The second map shows the Norwegian winter voyage in Spitzbergen waters of the steamer *Albert*, November and December, 1872. Part 14 of Stieler's Hand-Atlas gives for its three sheets Central and Southern Russia and the Caucasus, and the sixth plate of the United States—the States lying east of the Mississippi and south of the Ohio. Part 9 of Spruner's Historical Atlas has maps of Europe in 1740, France (1610–1790), British Isles (1485–1830), Hungary at various periods, and the usual number of small supplementary maps, including one of Paris at the close of the last century. (New York: B. Westermann & Co.)

—We have just received a short document addressed to the alumni of

West Point, and dated at St. Louis. It appears that in June last eleven graduates of the Military Academy met at Barnum's Hotel, to consider the best means of inducing all the graduates, instead of those only who served on the Federal side in the late war, to be present at the Annual Alumni Meeting in 1874. At this meeting, Captain Eaton, of Massachusetts, a graduate of the class of 1837, presented a paper setting forth his opinion as to a circular calling on all graduates to meet at the Point, in June next. This was "a paper as strongly Southern as could proceed from a Northern stand-point." Another paper was then read by General Tench Tilghman, a graduate of the class of 1832, and appointed from Maryland, and this was "a paper as strongly Northern as could proceed from a Southern stand-point." The two papers were submitted to a committee, composed of General Tilghman, General Martindale of this State, and Colonel Renick, a graduate of 1835, appointed from Virginia. At a subsequent meeting, the committee reported that Captain Eaton's and General Tilghman's papers had been admirably harmonized by General Martindale, and General Martindale's address was accepted as the circular to be distributed. It makes some good points. The graduates of the Military Academy, it remarks, were in no sense responsible for the war. Indeed, it goes further, and says that in the opinion of the committee it is wrong to regard "even the people of the United States of this generation" as being responsible for a war which was the result of opposing domestic, social, and industrial systems which had been planted in the country at its first settlement, two hundred and fifty long years ago. "It is a grave mistake to assume that a crisis in human affairs momentous as civil war, especially in a republican country like ours, can be provoked except by antagonisms which spring from the deepest and sincerest, though opposing, popular convictions"; and, as a corollary to this truth, the committee think that no one has a right to feel "surprise that the graduates of the United States Military Academy gravitated to the support of their respective sections. We know that they were equally conscientious. It was natural, nay, unavoidable, that they should be divided as their fathers and brothers were divided." The committee then speak of the fact that the graduates never lost their personal attachment and esteem for each other; that each side produced brave and distinguished soldiers; that our sectional animosities are disappearing; that we are equal before the law; that there remains only the restoration of friendly social relations; and they conclude by asking what class of men can do so much to promote this consummation as the graduates of West Point? Certainly, one would say that among themselves, if not with the rest of us, they might all agree. And an agreement of this kind, even if confined to themselves, would be of distinct value to the country. The squaws are powerful, but now, almost at the end of ten years, the braves might have their turn.

—Two years ago Professor Tayler Lewis delivered at Albany, before the University Convocation, an essay on the well-worn subject of the value of classical studies, and this year it is published, or republished, in a thin pamphlet. The subject is indeed well-worn—so much so as to be in no slight degree repellent; of what has been written on the one side of it a vast deal has been dishearteningly blind, and in the strict sense of the word impertinent; and of what has been written on the other much has been so commonplace that it has been almost as profitless reading as the treatises it was meant to refute. But it can be said of Professor Lewis that he is never dull or commonplace, but always secures the thanks of his readers for his freshness, and usually for his instructiveness; and this essay is not exceptional among his writings. What it may do in the way of enlightening the devotees of the laboratories we do not know—

"'Tis the taught already that profits by teaching."

and if a man has not within him some sense of literature and the ideal side of life, essays on classical study may probably be of no great benefit to him; but a good many old-fashioned people will get a deal of comfort from this discourse of the veteran professor at Union, who fifty years ago was inducting into the mysteries of Greek the grandfathers, perhaps, of some of the boys whom he sees around him now. Professor Lewis begins by saying that were one to judge by the newspapers one would suppose that a chief evil in our land was a plethora of Latin and Greek, and that we were in imminent danger of becoming a nation of pedants and bookworms—non-producers engaged in making Greek verses instead of managing railroads and newspapers, and developing the material resources of the country. That such an inference would be delusive he proceeds to show, though "in the language of the Psalmist," says he, "there were they in great fear where no fear was"; classical studies have held their own as against the physical sciences; considering the clamor of the press, it is a wonder that they have not disappeared altogether. Probably they have not done anything more than hold their own. That they have maintained themselves as well as they have is due to the fact, as Professor Lewis believes,

that "there is in the study an inherent respectability which nothing can supersede," which even the common mind cannot help perceiving, and which young men of ability and aspiration feel keenly—"the speaker knows it," he adds, "from his own experience, both as a student and a teacher." Still he thinks it undeniable that there is danger that these studies may be driven from our colleges; and, in looking for the reason of this, he seems to himself to have discovered it in the fact that we nowadays busy the undergraduate too much with grammar and too little with literature. We should be glad to quote a large part of the Professor's argument, but must content ourselves with a little, and with saying that he illustrates his position by a comparison of the school of critical students even so great as Porson and Elmsley with the earlier school or schools, in which he places Ralph Cudworth, John Selden, Vossius, Lapsius, Grotius, Heinsius, Salmassius, and the earlier names of Casaubon, Usher, Pococke, Scaliger, and Bochart. The one school, admirable as it is, and deep as is our obligation to them, he regards as reading Homer for the sake of knowing Greek; the other, as knowing Greek for the sake of reading Homer. This we put more roughly than Professor Lewis does; but perhaps we make his meaning clear. The practical result of his belief has been that he has long made his pupils read more and study grammars less than was his custom at the beginning of his life as an educator. No teacher will regret reading this little pamphlet. How readable it is may be seen by this extract. A writer in the *Atlantic Monthly*, a while ago, unadvisedly, but not with much turpitude, after all, said by way of jest that "one Usher held that the world was created on the 20th of September." This arouses Professor Lewis to some wrath, and thus he defends the archbishop, who, in choosing the autumnal equinox as a point of departure, only did what all chronologers find it convenient to do:

"One Usher' held so and so—a very odd opinion. There is no need of dwelling upon the merits of one who ought to be so well-known to every educated man. Who was 'One Usher'? He was among the most learned men of that exceedingly learned day. We produce no man that comes within sight of him in the amount and accuracy of his multifarious erudition. Take a Presbyterian General Assembly, Old School and New School united; lay upon that an Episcopal General Convention; add to it a Methodist General Conference, and a Congregational and Baptist General Association; pile upon the top of that all the weights of Boston free religion, and the whole mass would not contain more of substantial learning than was possessed by this 'One Usher' at whom the *Atlantic Monthly* writer so unworthily sneers."

—We shall not here name the English dramatist and general man-of-letters who is commonly reputed the author of a 'Life of Thackeray' which appeared shortly after the death of that author, and also of a 'Life of Charles Dickens,' published in 1870. The gentleman to whom these anonymous works are attributed has always, so far as we know, borne a respectable character, while as for the gentleman, whoever he may be, who is the actual author of them, he appears to be a literary workman who will bear a good deal of watching and whom his employers may profitably keep an eye on. Six years ago we happened to be put in possession of the facts in regard to Dickens's first connection with American publishers, and laid them before our readers. It may be worth while to state them over again briefly: It is now going on thirty years since the newly-established *Harper's Magazine* was contending with the *International* for the leadership of monthly periodical literature. Mr. W. A. Townsend, of the firm of Stringer & Townsend, who published the *International*, conceived the idea of buying from Dickens the advance sheets of his next novel, and, as soon as the thought occurred to him, persuaded his rather reluctant partner to cross the water with an offer of two thousand dollars for the exclusive right, so far as the novelist could, confer it by giving advance sheets, of publishing 'Bleak House' in this country. But in an unlucky hour Mr. Stringer confided the knowledge of his enterprise to the late Dr. Griswold, then of the *Evening Post*, who almost immediately made it the subject of one of his paragraphs. This the Harpers had no sooner seen than they despatched a messenger post-haste to England, where Mr. Stringer had been visiting Dickens's publishers, and been told that he was not then engaged on any novel, and whence he soon departed for the Continent, rather pleased on the whole that the two thousand dollars were not to be at risk. The messenger of the Messrs. Harper, on the other hand, went directly to Dickens himself, and the bargain was at once made. This resulted first and last in putting a great many thousand dollars into Dickens's pocket; and another result was that the *International's* subscription-list was before very long transferred to *Harper's Monthly*. These facts we learned from the only person in the country fully cognizant of them, and he being a party chiefly interested in the transactions detailed, our statement of them (vide *Nation*, No. 95) naturally remained distinctly in his mind. But to his surprise he found the other day, on picking up the 'Life of Dickens,' republished in 1870 from the English original, that the author of that production had "lifted" the matter in question, and transferred it bodily

to his pages without note, comment, acknowledgment of indebtedness, or any indication that it was not his own. It is a piece of small dishonesty, that matters little, but it ought all the same to be exposed.

—The *Daily Graphic's* transatlantic aeronaut is busily preparing for his venturesome balloon voyage, which no one can regard without interest or good wishes. Mr. Wise's experience of the currents justifies him in feeling certain of moving rapidly eastward. His trip will not be an experiment in this respect, except to the minds of doubters. But though he knows that there are no currents from the east at high altitudes, he cannot interpret the various westerly ones which he has known, for he is reported as using the term "centrifugal" in reference to their more rapid motion than that of the earth. As this term is utterly misapplied to winds in every respect, it is an error worth nailing. The notion came from the familiar experiment of rotating a glass globe containing a colored liquid, which liquid is set in motion by its friction against a surface outside of it that moves more rapidly than the liquid can move even at its maximum, the maximum being attained at the equator of the globe. But in the case of the earth the surface is underneath the fluids, and moves no faster than they, for both are moved by a common force. Moreover, at the equator, where "centrifugal" power would be greatest, the oceans and atmosphere move slower than the part underneath with a shorter radius. Again, this so-called centrifugal force is greatest at the poles, where the air is driven away from the axis so strongly that the barometer falls indefinitely. The name being refuted, it may be interesting to consider what the thing is. It is simply the natural independence of fluids. It is only *solid* masses which act as units. Every drop of water in the ocean is attracted to the earth and moon and sun just as strongly as if there were no other drop in existence, and is rotated by a force in it separate from the force in every other drop. Apparently, this fact is disguised because friction modifies it. The power of the force of rotation is measured both by the mean velocity of the whole solid portion (the velocity of the axis being zero) and by the velocity of currents of air high enough to be free from friction with the earth's surface, which surface in the tropics moves faster than the average and thus accelerates the wind, but slower than the average near the axis, thus retarding the ocean and air which pass over it toward the east. It must be borne in mind that if the northern half of the axis be bisected, the middle will be in latitude 30°, not in latitude 45°. Thus the atmosphere moves all alike from west to east, trade winds and temperate winds just the same; it is the solid crust which is irregular, because so stiff that friction does its perfect work, whirling the torrid zone beneath its superincumbent ocean and air with an unnatural eastward speed, and cramping the temperate zones so that the regular rotation of the air above them appears like a special phenomenon of eastward velocity.

—The cardinal fact being thus explained, the cross currents are easily accounted for. Wherever masses of air of very unequal temperature lie adjacent, the tendency to interflow is greater than friction can hinder; but this exchange cannot overcome the general movement of rotation—which is tantamount to saying that a so-called polar current will appear as a W.N.W. wind at New York and as an E.N.E. wind at Key West, while a so-called equatorial current will appear at Key West E.S.E. and at New York W.S.W. To this general law there are two exceptions: first, if the unequally heated strata are next the earth's surface, the friction from the latter will annul the rotatory tendency, and the exchange will appear more direct, hence the S.E. sea-breezes of our Atlantic coast in spring and summer; secondly, an ascending mass of air, which is known by the lowness of the barometer beneath it, always revolves about a special axis, and if the area is many miles in extent, this revolution is often intense enough to reverse the apparent movement due to the latitude, hence especially our N.E. winds in winter, which occupy the northwestern segments of immense areas of revolving ascending superoceanic air. At the altitude which Mr. Wise proposes to attain, all these backward currents will have been overwhelmed, and he will only have to choose between W.N.W. and W.S.W. hurricanes. His real problem will be to guess correctly where to find each of these, and to rise or fall between them delicately enough to be carried by them to a chosen goal.

—Both in this country and in England, Sunday-school literature has stamped the impression, which, however, Sunday-school literature was not first to make, that the Sandwich Islanders of Captain Cook's day were cannibals. Later and better authorities than the early navigators in Pacific waters have disabused us of that belief, but to many of our readers there will still be news in a lecture recently delivered by a Dr. Winslow, for some years a resident of the Islands, who, as we are assured by persons having a very good knowledge of the islanders, native and foreign, may be relied upon as in every way worthy of credence. A portion of the lecture was devoted to Captain Cook, and it was here that Dr. Winslow brought up the subject

of cannibalism. After Cook had unfortunately been killed, the people were astonished and distressed at the evidence of their barbarity towards one with whom they had been so friendly, and their only thought was to atone as far as possible for their ill conduct. They therefore proceeded to treat Cook's remains as they were accustomed to treat those of their highest chiefs, and as if he had been a divinity. They removed the great bones of his legs and arms; and the rest of the remains, except the entrails, they laid before their greatest idol, in a temple where they sacrificed dogs and pigs in honor of his memory, and in expiation of his sins and their own. The entrails they had carefully placed in a calabash, intending to make pious use of them in a subsequent ceremony, when a boy (who in 1845, at which time Dr. Winslow conversed with him, was an intelligent old man of seventy-five or eighty years), mistaking them for the entrails of a pig, cut off a piece, roasted it on the coals, and ate it. This is all the cannibalism there was; for in truth, the islanders were not then, and never were, eaters of human flesh, though we believe we are not mistaken in saying that pirates amongst them have now and again practised cannibalism very much as European brigands or conspirators may have drunk blood together, but not otherwise. When afterwards English navigators enquired about the fate of Cook, and the repentant natives brought them the bones, which had been preserved, the inference was at once drawn that his flesh had been devoured, and the Christian world immediately set down the newly discovered islanders as man-eaters, and afterwards persistently maintained it; but this, as we now know, was extremely unfair. However, the islanders, in consequence of this misconception, had afterwards to drink from a little cup, as have most uncivilized nations with whom people of our race come in contact. Indeed, to do us Christians justice, the pagan communities are not numerous who have ever got the better of us either in matters of violence or matters of craft. With the early Christians the case was different; but we later Christians can outkill and otherwise circumvent any existing tribe or people, whether of heathendom, Jewry, or of those nations that eat the filthy gobbets of Mahound.

—Of new English books we present a list, miscellaneous in character, which, containing no book of first-rate importance, contains several of value. 'Characteristics of Christian Morality' is the title of a controversial work by the Rev. Gregory Smith, who has been the Bampton lecturer for 1873, and whose lectures now appear in a permanent form. Their interest for clergymen will be seen when we say that the special assailants of Christianity which Mr. Smith selected for the Bampton attack of this year are the late Mr. Mill and Mr. F. W. Newman. The position held by these gentlemen—that Christian morality is defective, is bad, not as being unattainable, which is what is usually alleged against it, but bad because of its deficiencies—Mr. Smith is thought to have assaulted with marked success. Church clergymen will also take varying degrees of inimical or friendly interest in a book published by Messrs. James Parker & Co., entitled 'Church Goods in Hertfordshire,' which is an inventory of furniture and ornaments remaining in the parish churches of Hertfordshire in the last year of the reign of Edward VI. 'The Life of Charlotte Brontë,' by Mrs. Gaskell, is the last volume of Messrs. Smith, Elder & Co.'s 'Life and Works of Charlotte Brontë and Her Sisters'—a series of handsome volumes, in which we have in worthy dress not only the more famous novels but also the less read, 'Wuthering Heights' and 'Tenant of Wildfell Hall'—tales whose fascination does not fail however much we may condemn them, and to which we find ourselves at certain intervals returning with the certainty of being impressed by truth and poetry as well as by morbid power. Another biography that ought to be a good one, though we cannot reasonably expect it to be as good as Mrs. Gaskell's, is the 'Memoir of Sara Coleridge by her Daughter.' Praise we see given to Mrs. Arthur Treherne's 'Romantic Annals of a Naval Family,' which is understood to be true and not fictitious, although the events recorded often verify by their strangeness the old adage about truth and fiction. It has in it letters from William IV. and from Admiral Lord Howe and Admiral Lord Hood. To go back to religious books for a moment: Lord Stratford de Redcliffe—the firm-lipped god of Mr. Kinglake's idolatry, the great Elchi who sat by the Bosphorus baffling the Frenchman and the Russ and sustaining the empery of the Turk—has written a seventy-one-page pamphlet entitled interrogatively, 'Why am I a Christian?' and answering that question. Some of his critics indicate that the answer given is sufficient proof that his lordship is not a Christian. But they appear to have no better ground to go upon than his former diplomatic profession, and the proposition that if the evidences enumerated by him only "satisfy his reason," and do no more for him than that, he is no Christian at all. The book is said to be earnestly rather than convincingly written. Mr. William Rossetti appears with a new edition of the works of Mrs. Hemans, for which he furnishes a critical memoir of that facile poetess, who was compelled to write so much more than she should have written. Why

she should be now revived with these honors is not very clear. Many copies, however, will no doubt be sold. 'Life in Danbury'—which we believe is well on towards its twenty-fifth thousand in this country—is advertised in the English papers, and so is Dr. Mayo's 'Never Again,' that remarkable picture of "American life," and perhaps even more remarkable product of twenty entire years of mental labor on the part of an adult American novelist. Twenty years is said, at all events, to have been spent over it. Dr. Maudsley has revised and enlarged his work entitled 'Body and Mind,' and has added to it 'Psychological Essays.' "A Monk of St. Augustine, Ramsgate," writes a small pamphlet, 'Monastic Studies,' on university education as it was when under the guidance of the church. Followers of Mrs. Battle will perhaps wish to consult a work by Mr. Arthur Thistlewood, which he calls 'Whist in Rhymes for Modern Times,' and which, he says, renders the laws of the game into verse easy to be remembered. There are twenty-eight pages of it, including the references to various authorities, and the price of it is one shilling and sixpence.

—An article in the *Workshop*, on "Elementary Forms of Ornamentation," remarks that many learned archæologists have vainly endeavored to unfold the meaning of the lions, gazelles, eagles, and falcons which frequently occur in Saracenic tapestry. It then offers as a clearing up of the difficulty "some verses from Eastern poetry":

"Morning dawn grew clear and bright,
Heart and soul rejoiced once more,
When the coy gazelle, like night,
Fled the morning lion's roar.

"Life and action filled my breast,
Up I started firm and bold,
The falcon, with his wings of gold,
Hovered o'er its azure nest."

This, it will be seen, is one more addition to the ever-recurring and all-pervasive sun-myth. The gazelle is the night; the lion is the sun or the light before which she flees; the falcon is the golden day in the azure sky. How much the lion and the gazelle and the falcon had to do with the sun by the time they got into Saracenic ornamentation, and how they are the better as ornamentation because originally it pleased Providence to call them into the station in life of a sun-myth, the writer in the *Workshop* does not say.

—The famous Sydow case, which for eighteen months had by turns excited and exhausted the Berlin public in church and state, has been brought to a conclusion, through the restoration of the venerable pastor to his office under a qualified censure. For more than fifty years Sydow has been a faithful and acceptable pastor, and, though not distinguished for intellectual force nor for popular eloquence, he has borne a good reputation for learning and piety, has had a strong hold upon the affections of his congregation, and has received some special tokens of confidence from the Court, especially under the late King. A pupil of Schleiermacher, he has always inclined more to the Rationalistic than to the Evangelical side of his teacher's philosophy; and in January, 1872, in a public lecture, he went so far as to impugn the supernatural birth of Christ, the doctrine of the Trinity, and the divine authority of the Bible. For this he was arraigned before the Consistory of Brandenburg for heresy, and, after more than a year of controversy, was found guilty of a fundamental departure from the confession of faith which he had sworn to maintain, and accordingly was deposed from his office. An appeal lay to the Oberkirchenrath, the supreme Council of the Church, and the finding of this tribunal is, that Dr. Sydow had brought a grievous scandal upon the church by his doubtful utterances upon certain weighty doctrines; but nevertheless, those utterances were made not from the pulpit but in a scientific lecture, and were qualified by other phrases in the lecture itself and in Sydow's subsequent explanations—the amount of which seems to be that, in discoursing of the higher mysteries, the lecturer got himself into a fog, and then succeeded in befogging his judges. The Council further take into consideration Dr. Sydow's long standing in his office, his unimpeachable character, the devotion of his people, and his relations to the Court, and, in view of all the circumstances, revoke the sentence of the Consistory and reinstate the accused in his congregation.

—As a sign of the drift of ecclesiastical politics in Prussia, Dr. Sydow's case is significant. Not only Dr. Sydow's congregation, to whom he preached his heretical doctrines, but the press and the people of Berlin, had earnestly espoused his cause, making his a test-case of free thought and free speech, and especially freedom of scientific enquiry in theology. Public meetings were held at the City Hall to protest against the action of the Consistory, and a purse was made up for Sydow's benefit; clergymen and professors in different parts of the country joined in condemning his displacement—in a word, the new power of public opinion was brought to bear upon a case of ecclesiastical discipline. Neither Sydow nor his friends looked to the separation of church and state for relief from what

they regarded as persecution, and his judges had good reason to fear that a separation would throw the bulk of the church property in Berlin into the hands of extreme Liberals as most fairly representing the majority of the parishes. In these circumstances, the voice of the public was heeded by the Council of the Church. It was whispered that the King, while engaged in a conflict of supremacy with the Roman Catholic hierarchy, was unwilling to endure the scandal of a controversy and a possible rupture in the Evangelical Church. It is said, also, that the Crown Prince sympathizes with Sydow's theology rather than with his orthodox accusers. Moreover, since the case began, the new ecclesiastical laws have created a civil tribunal of revision over ecclesiastical excommunication; and it would have been a travesty of this legislation if the sword sharpened for recalcant Catholic bishops should first have been put to the throat of the Oberkirchenrath—the representative of the Evangelical dynasty—by a civil judge reversing its sentence. The Council has got out of the dilemma by a decision which would give say Mr. Frothingham and Dr. Tyng an equal status in the same church!

THOMAS'S HUMAN LONGEVITY.*

THE subject of the extreme limit of human life is naturally one which interests most persons. Though, so far as profane history teaches, there has been little variation in the extent of days granted to mankind, taking the average in each generation, there has long been a belief that in exceptional cases a great age has been reached. In comparatively recent times there has been an unreasoning willingness to accept very large figures. Thus, in a catalogue of 1,712 persons who are said to have attained a century and upwards, we find the following ages recorded: 145, 152, 154, 163, 127, 132, 143, 126, 127, 185, 140, 138, 137, 172, 164, 130, 159, etc., etc. On the other hand, since the enunciation by Buffon of the law that in animals the duration of life bears a proportion to the duration of growth, and is, in the case of man, as Flourens states the rule, twenty years' growth and one hundred years' duration, there has been a decided reaction and a belief that ages much above one hundred years are impossible. The late Sir George Cornewall Lewis was perhaps the most noted writer who urged the incredibility of the existence of even centenarians. The book now issued by Mr. Thoms is a contribution to the discussion, valuable so far as it goes, but far from fulfilling the promise of its title. It is, indeed, rather a record of the investigations made by one critic, successfully disproving the claims made in certain cases, narrated at almost unnecessary length. The "suggestions for testing reputed cases" of centenarianism amount to just this: "deny everything and insist upon proof." The cases examined are the following: of Henry Jenkins, said to have attained the age of 169 years; of Thomas Parr, 152 years; the Countess of Desmond, 140 years; Mary Billinge, 112 years; Jonathan Reeves, 104 years; Joshua Miller, 111 years; Mandit Baden, 106 years; Thomas Geerau, 106 years; John Pratt, 105 years; George Fletcher, 108 years; George Smith, 105 years; Edward Couch, 110 years; William Webb, 105 years; John Dawe, 108 years; George Brewer, 106 years; Robert Howlison, 103 years; Robert Bowman, 118 years; Frederick Lahrbusch, 106 years, and still living; Richard Purser, 112 years; William Bennett, 105 years; Mary Hicks, 104 years; James McDonald, George Peacocke, and Richard Taylor, all alleged centenarians at least.

It is evident that this part of Mr. Thoms's book is of little value in the main controversy on the possibility of centenarianism. He examines and possibly disproves some twenty-five cases; but with the exception of the first three and one other, these cases are of no special prominence. Such a disproof goes but a very little way towards affecting the numerous other alleged examples of centenarianism already in print. The most that can be said of them is that Mr. Thoms has done well in investigating so many cases and in exposing error. The famous cases of Jenkins, Parr, and the Countess of Desmond are very carefully examined, and, we think, disproved. The other case, that of Frederick Lahrbusch, is of interest mainly because the person in question has been for some years one of the notabilities of New York. Without opening the question for discussion, it is proper to say that Mr. Thoms comes to the decision that Mr. Lahrbusch was born about 1786, and is therefore far from being a centenarian yet. The facts upon which this opinion is formed by Mr. Thoms seem certainly to be very strong, and will probably remain uncontroverted.

But Mr. Thoms has done one very considerable service in presenting certain cases of centenarianism which he considers to be entirely proved. These merit a full presentation as important witnesses in the main case:

1st. Jane, youngest daughter of Francis Chassereau, was "baptized at

* *Human Longevity—its Facts and Fictions*; including an Enquiry into some of the more remarkable instances and suggestions for testing reputed cases. Illustrated by Examples. By William J. Thoms, F.S.A., Deputy Librarian House of Lords. London: John Murray; New York: Scribner, Welford & Armstrong. 1873. 8vo, pp. 322.

St. Martin-in-the-Fields, London, November 14, 1739; born November 13," as the parish record shows. She married, October 27, 1764, Robert Williams, Esq., a banker, and M.P. for Dorchester, and died October 8, 1841, aged almost 102 years. There was evidence that November 13 was always observed as her birthday; and of course no question as to her father's name. In 1820, she wrote her name in a Bible given to a grandson; and he added the note, "written in her 81st year"; and again in October, 1822, to her signature he appended, "written in her 83d year." Evidence of such an age is of course perfectly credible, and if accepted the case is established. Of course, as Mrs. Williams left numerous descendants, there is a continuous chain of evidence proving that long before she arrived at the age of 100 years, she made statements which proved that she believed that she was born in 1739.

2d. Mr. William Plank was the son of James and Hannah Plank, and was baptized at Wandsworth, Surrey, November 20, 1767. He alleged that he was born on the 7th of that month, which is, of course, most probable. He was apprenticed to his brother as a calico-printer, May 23, 1782, at which time he must have been 14 years old and over, and took up his freedom in the Salters' Company, October 20, 1789, when he must have been 21 years and upwards. He remained always a member of the Company, and died at Harrow, November 19, 1867. He was clearly a centenarian, and as a man is likely to know his birthday, he undoubtedly exceeded the century by twelve days.

3d. Jacob William Luning was born at Hamelvörden, in Hanover, May 19, 1767, son of the clergyman there, Meinhard Conrad Luning, as the existing record shows. In 1784, his uncle published a genealogy, in which Jacob William is mentioned, and the above date of birth is given. In 1790, he came to London, and was employed as a book-keeper. He insured his life in the Equitable Office at the age of 36, and was admitted to Morden College, March 30, 1859, when he stated his age was 91 on his previous birthday. He died June 23, 1870, aged 103 years 1 month 4 days. A clearer case than this can hardly be imagined.

4th. "Catherine, daughter of Sir John and Lady Dorothy Eden, of Windleston, was baptized, February 11, 1771," as the record shows, and was born on the previous day, as she always declared, and is reasonable to believe. She was selected in October, 1790, by the Lords of Treasury, as one of the lives in a Tontine, being then described as aged 19 years. Her life and identity were proved annually, till her death, March 19, 1872, when she was aged 101 years 1 month and 9 days. She married, in 1803, Robert Eden Duncombe Shafto, M.P., and had six children. Here the evidence is continuous and conclusive.

5th. David Rennie, of Dundee, farmer, was born February 28, 1755, and died March 2, 1857. This fact is given on the authority of Sir Alexander Spearman, who quotes it as another Tontine case in the records of the National Debt Office, and who adds: "The evidence in this case was perfect." To these five undoubted cases, Mr. Thoms adds four others as probable, viz.: Mrs. Martha Lawrence, Mrs. Sally Clark, Mrs. Peggy Longmire, and Mrs. Elizabeth Puckle, the first, at least, being almost proved. They are at all events interesting, as proving that the ordinary age of mankind is sometimes very considerably exceeded.

We may now sum up Mr. Thoms's evidence on the main question as furnishing five undoubted cases of centenarianism occurring in England within the present century. The thought will naturally arise whether or not any equally well-proved examples can be produced from our American records. Answering briefly that we expect to produce such instances, we pause to state that we believe many other cases have occurred in England, which are now probably incapable of rigid proof. Having once established the fact that there is no Divine law which prohibits mankind from living one hundred years, it is impossible not to begin to give some credence to the earlier cases recorded in the lists. It by no means follows that the better classes in England pursue the mode of life most favorable to longevity; and if it be true, as Sir G. C. Lewis states, that "no person of royal or noble rank mentioned in history reached the age of a hundred years," this does not affect the case of exceptional lives in the lower classes. We may also affirm that it is reasonable to expect that cases of centenarianism will increase in number hereafter. If it be true that the average duration of human life in each generation has increased for the past three centuries, owing to a more general knowledge of the laws of health and a wider observance of them, it is fair to expect that this gain will also be felt in extreme old age. If the average be now forty years instead of thirty, we may expect to see as many persons exceed one hundred years of life as formerly reached ninety years and upwards.

In leaving Mr. Thoms's book, it is proper to state that he pleads defective eyesight as an excuse for any deficiencies. Considering the good work done by him for many years as editor of *Notes and Queries*, we may well accept

the excuse with hearty regret for its existence. As to American centenarians, much information is obtainable. In fact, Mr. Thoms had in his own magazine a number of well-established cases recorded, though for some reason he did not enter upon this branch of his subject. (See *N. & Q.*, 4th S., viii. 221; ix. 40, 223, 323; x. 246.) Of these, four instances were of graduates of Harvard, and therefore were in all respects worthy of careful attention. We give brief abstracts of these instances:

1. Dr. Edward Augustus Holyoke was born at Marblehead, August 1, 1722, and died at Salem, March 31, 1829. The record of his brother and sisters shows the impossibility of any substitution of a later child for an earlier one of the same name. Besides, when he entered Harvard, of which college his father was President, in 1742, his age was entered according to custom on the register, and was fourteen years. He lived all his days in Salem and its vicinity, and a public dinner was given him on the day when he completed his century.

2. Hon. Timothy Farrar was born at Lincoln, Mass., June 28, 1747, and died at Hollis, N. H., February 21, 1849. His birth and those of the rest of his father's family are duly recorded, as is also his age on the college register. Mr. Farrar was a judge of the Superior Court of New Hampshire for twenty-five years, a gentleman of the highest character. He certainly believed in his asserted age, for he was present at the delivery of a sermon commemorating his completion of a century, an attestation under the circumstances of the greatest value.

3. Sampson Salter Blowers was born at Boston, Mass., March 22, 1742, and died at Halifax, N. S., October 25, 1842. He was a Royalist, and, settling in Nova Scotia, became Chief-Justice there, an office which he held for thirty-two years. Here, again, the proofs are ample: his birth as recorded at Boston, his entry at Harvard in 1759, aged seventeen years and a quarter, his prominent position, and contemporary recognition of his reaching the age of one hundred years.

4. Dr. Ezra Green was born at Malden, Mass., June 23, 1746, and died at Dover, N. H., July 25, 1847. He was a surgeon in the navy, and served on board Paul Jones's vessel, the *Ranger*. He was a member of the New Hampshire State Convention which adopted the Constitution, and all his life was before the public. His age was recorded at Harvard when he entered.

In these four cases, which are fully set forth in *Notes and Queries*, we have evidence superior even to the English ones. Our records give the date of birth; the English parish registers give baptisms mainly. The register at Harvard, made at the time of entering college, is an independent witness of the highest value, since at the early age of admission no boy could be mistaken as to his exact age. After graduating, the chain of evidence is continuous. The catalogues and the yearly meetings at commencement-time keep every case of extreme longevity before the minds of hundreds of educated and intelligent men. It is impossible for error or fraud to occur in the cases of college graduates.

5. Of other well-authenticated cases, we will cite that of Rev. Daniel Waldo, who was born at Windham, Conn., as the records show, September 10, 1762, and who died at Syracuse, N. Y., July 30, 1864. He was a preacher all his life, and in 1856 was chosen chaplain of the United States House of Representatives. Thousands of persons living must remember him, and the fact that he was then known to be ninety-four years old. The Rev. Charles Cleveland, the well-known Boston missionary, lacked but sixteen days of completing his century. He was born at Norwich, Conn., June 21, 1772, and died at Boston, June 5, 1872. His case, however, is a good witness in substantiating instances of centenarianism.

6. Mrs. Mehitabel Piper was the daughter of Joseph Barker, and was born at Acton, Mass., January 24, 1871. She died there March 25, 1872, having resided in that town all her life. The town records are complete, and in 1849 she was mentioned in the 'Piper Genealogy' as being seventy-eight years old.

7. Mrs. Anna Dix was the daughter of John Stimpson, of Charlestown, Mass., and was baptized there, as the records of the First Church show, October 27, 1771. She died in Boston, May 14, 1872. Her family state that she was born on the 14th October; but taking simply the date of baptism, she lived over one hundred years.

Numerous other cases of alleged centenarians might be cited, but the above list comprises the instances which have been investigated by the writer. To it might be added, if space permitted, a list of the last twenty-five Revolutionary pensioners, kindly furnished us by the Commissioner. It is reasonable to believe that the Pension Office carefully investigated each case. Of these, all but seven are set down as having exceeded one hundred years (the extremes being 101-109). Of one man's age no record was kept. The rest at least survived the age of 97.

The Liberal Education of Women—the Demand and the Method. Current Thoughts in England and America. Edited by James Orton, A.M. (New York and Chicago: A. S. Barnes & Co. 1873.)—Professor Orton has done a useful work in collecting in one volume a batch of the more remarkable of the articles which the above subject has called forth during the last four or five years. He has been as impartial in his selection as could be expected, considering that one side does nearly all the talking; and as there has been much talking on this theme, those who are interested will be glad to know where to find the best of it. To such we can commend the volume as very profitable reading.

After they have read it, the conclusions they will come to will be something like the following: Among thoughtful and intelligent men and women, both in England and America, there is no diversity of opinion as to the need of giving women a higher education than they have now. Concerning the nature of this higher education, there is some, but not a great, division of sentiment. All, or nearly all, are substantially agreed that it ought to be somewhat the same as that given to boys—that is, a combination of classics and mathematics and the natural sciences. It is over the amount of this education which girls ought to receive, and the machinery by which it ought to be imparted, that the divergence of ideas first shows itself. That there is very great divergence there is no denying, and it plainly has its origin in wide differences of opinion on the radical question of woman's place in nature and in society. Those who belong to Mr. Mill's school, and who hold that women are simply an abused and down-trodden race, whose equal participation with men in all the work of life is needed to make our civilization complete, hold also naturally that their education should be identically the same with that of men, and be imparted in the same places and by the same machinery. Those who hold, on the other hand, that the function of child-bearing which has been assigned to women has entailed differences of mental and moral as well as of physical organization, hold that female education should be regulated by a strict reference to this function; that education should be restricted in amount, so as not to unfit woman for the proper discharge of it, and because the probability that she will be called on to discharge it, and thus incapacitated for contending with men for the ordinary prizes of life, renders a man's training practically unnecessary for her. The discussion, therefore, which rages in the books and magazines is mainly over the question of degree; the question of method, though also important, is subsidiary and probably temporary in its interest. If it be once settled how much education women ought to receive, and were a general agreement once reached as to her place in society, there would probably be little difficulty in reaching an amicable conclusion as to how she ought to be taught.

We need hardly say that, owing to the fact that the education question is only part of the larger and more serious question of woman's proper sphere, there is very little calm or restrained writing on the former. Nearly everybody who approaches it, feeling that there are mighty interests at stake behind it—interests over which it is not in human nature to be cold or rational—apparently considers it his duty to imitate the detachment of trumpeters which Napoleon sent round on the enemy's flank at Lodi—"blow hard and charge furiously." Professor Orton himself, though he endeavors to hold the balance fairly, is occasionally carried off his feet, and even in his preface becomes slightly inarticulate, as when he compares the "woman movement" to the march of the Reform Bill over the House of Lords threatened by Brougham, and likewise to Sherman's "March to the Sea," and threatens everlasting repose among "the fossils" to everybody who opposes it.

The articles in the volume which we have marked as displaying the results of most thought or experience are President Raymond's, on the general question; the Rev. J. M. Capes's, on "The Mental Peculiarities of Women"; "The Difficulties," from the *Edinburgh Review*; "Joint Education," by the Rev. Thomas Markby; and President Fairchild's and President Blanchard's account of the experience of Oberlin and Knox Colleges respectively. We have been somewhat entertained by finding the fallacious suggestion that knowledge is food for the mind in the same sense that matter is food for the body, figuring in several of the arguments. The precious discovery first shows itself in an article from the *Westminster Review* on "The Suppressed Sex." Then President White of Cornell gets hold of it and uses it as a clench in favor of coeducation. Then President Fairchild uses it, but with modifications; and, finally, Colonel Higginson flings it in the face of President Eliot at the Social Science Association. We think it high time now to withdraw it and put it in the garret. Dr. Freeman Clarke, of Boston, has a very singular way of meeting those who fear that if their daughters went to college with young men, they might get engaged or married to persons in a "different sphere of life and belonging to different social positions." This he confesses might happen, but this would be "a real advantage" instead of a misfortune, as it would bring a new element into the girl's family and social circle. This alone may serve to fur-

nish an idea of the difficulty there is, and always will be, for a large portion of the class which sends its children to college in coming to terms with progressive people like Dr. Clarke. There is a great gulf of sentiment between them. To most fathers and mothers, what Dr. Clarke extols as a blessing would be a great grief and disappointment, and Dr. Clarke is evidently of opinion that the simple assurance of himself and his friends that they are all wrong ought to act as complete consolation, and cause them to send their girls to be "coeducated" at once.

Outlines of German Literature. By Joseph Gostwick and Robert Harrison. (New York: Holt & Williams, F. W. Christern. Boston: S. R. Urbino. 1873.)—On the whole, this book is deserving of commendation. It is a painstaking compendium, very full and accurate considering the size of the book and the dreariness of most of the writers who had to be dealt with. In the first chapter, we have a brief account of the language, with its historical divisions, and a short mention of the few writings in the old High-German. An abstract is given of the old "Nibelungenlied," of the two romances, "Parzival" and "Tristan," as well as of the other early products of German literature. A few intelligent words are written about the *Minne-lieder* and the Master Singers. The first one hundred and fifty pages bring the history up to the time of the Thirty Years' War, near the end of which Leibnitz was born. About fifty pages are devoted to the period 1725-70, in which Gottsched, Bodmer, Winckelmann, Klopstock, Lessing, and Wieland are the best known names. Nearly three hundred pages follow, treating of Goethe, Schiller, and the romantic school; and the last one hundred and twenty pages discuss the most prominent names in the literature of the last forty years, in which, to be sure, certain omissions may be noted (for it is easy to forget certain of the second-class poets of Germany), but which in general goes over the ground very carefully. In fact, the book comes down to so late a period that Strauss's "Der alte und der neue Glaube" and the *Kutschke-lied* are mentioned. In handling the more important authors, a brief sketch is given of their lives, extracts are given from some of their writings, and of others there is but a short account. The philosophers and theologians have a few pages given to the elucidation of their systems. The criticisms are of the sort which may be called safe. No popular idols are overthrown, no neglected genius receives unaccustomed adulation. What we may call the good, average opinion of the present time is expressed. It may be seen, then, that this is in no way an original book; it is not, for instance, a book like Taine's "History of English Literature." Even the omnivorous general reader will probably fall asleep over it, but it has its merits as a work of reference; for other purposes it would have but little more value than an ordinary table of contents. But what it professes to do it does well. It might easily be made more valuable as a text-book—indeed, more valuable to every one, in school or out, who might have occasion to consult it—by the insertion of a list of English and French books treating of the various authors under discussion; as Lewes's "Life of Goethe," for instance, as well as of a certain number of review articles, like Mr. Lowell's on Lessing in the *North American Review*, republished among his essays, Cherbuliez's on the same writer in a number of the *Revue des Deux Mondes* of a few years ago, or Mr. Gryzanowski's article on Schopenhauer in the last *North American*. This would enable the reader to supplement the meagre accounts of this hand-book, and see what more thorough criticism has to say about the writers. Such information, which should be at hand and save a discouraging hunt through catalogues, would be of great service to many and would be in the way of no one.

Wie studirt man Philologie? Eine Hodegetik für Jünger dieser Wissenschaft. Von Wilhelm Freund. (Leipzig. 1872.)—In Dr. Freund's pamphlet of 158 pages, the well-known author of "Freund's Lexicon," "Andrews's Lexicon," and in fact every lexicon of the last thirty years, undertakes to reply at once to the questions put him from various quarters by young men beginning their philological studies. The first question is "What is Philology, and what is its extent?" And this question settled, the next is "How shall all this amount of study be compressed into the short space of three years?" The ordinary German university presents a variety of means and appliances: (1) the lectures; (2) the philological seminary; (3) the archaeological museum; (4) the library. Now, if to these public aids we add the philological exercises of a more private character, carried on by the individual instructors under various names, such as "Philological Preparatory Seminary," "Greek Society," "Grammatical Society," "Philological Society," "Archæological Seminary," etc., etc., the embarrassment of riches becomes great. But this is not all. The lectures run over all departments of ancient life, from the Encyclopedia and Methodology of Philology to Numismatics, from the "Homeric Question" and Pindar's Hymns to the interpretation of Diodorus Siculus and the Apokolokyntosis of Seneca. How is the raw gymnasiast, coming from his prescribed course of study, over to third

this tangled maze, and escape sliding off into some one-sided specialty before he has fairly surveyed the ground and made himself master of the situation?

To remedy this obvious difficulty, Friedrich August Wolf shaped his lectures into a three years' course, and his example has been followed by other eminent men, such as Niebuhr, Boeckh, and Bernhardt. Briefly condensed, the course recommended for the three years is, I., Grammar, criticism, and hermeneutics; II., Antiquities—public, private, and sacred, including mythology. The history of literature, begun the first year, is continued. The student is also expected in the second year to be a member in full standing of the Philological Seminary. III., Art, including rhetoric, poetry, metres, and archaeology, together with numismatics.

Dr. Freund is naturally compelled to discuss one question which has been somewhat agitated in this country, namely, the relative importance of lectures and of practical exercises, corresponding to some extent with the American recitation system. It will surprise a great many people who fancy that a German university is an agglomeration of lecturers and lectures, and that the lectures are like the loose talks to mixed audiences which are called lectures in this country, to hear with what emphasis he speaks of the importance of the philological seminary, and what a decided preference he gives to the dialogic method over mere passive or receptive lectures. "Without disparaging in the least," he says, "the value of university lectures, it is an indisputable truth that instruction in the form of dialogue is far more profitable than lectures of the very highest order. It is a proof of Wolf's keen vision that he revived the ancient Socratic and Platonic method of *διαλογία*, the 'discussion of subjects of knowledge,' by establishing the philological seminary." This view of Dr. Freund's is entirely confirmed by the progress of philology in Germany for the last twenty-five years. No name in this department of learning is so conspicuous as that of Friedrich Ritschl; no school of philology has made its mark so decidedly as his; to be a "*Ritschli-amer*"—an approved pupil of Ritschl's—at once ensures respect and opens the way to speedy advancement. This wide-spread influence of Ritschl's is not due to his lectures, though his lectures are in the highest degree instructive and stimulating; more than anything else it is due to the struggles in the philological seminary, where everything is sifted to the bottom, where the student is pried with all sorts of questions, has sudden and unexpected dangers constantly sprung upon him, and fences with a master whose quick eye and equally quick blow keep the pupil ever on the alert. The English system of education, where the weight is thrown entirely upon written examinations, undoubtedly gives great poise and aptness at answering questions. But its weak point is that it is not productive and does not train to original investigation, and the blind admirers of this system would be puzzled to answer the questions: Where are the results? Where are the books? What school of young English philologists can be set by the side of the disciples of Ritschl and Curtius? Though Dr. Freund's book is primarily intended for German students, it will be useful and instructive to American students who propose to go to Germany to study philology; also to another and very meritorious class of men, teachers whose means do not allow them to go to Europe, but who are anxious to push their studies out beyond the narrow college curriculum. Some notices of distinguished philologists and hints for the formation of a modest private philological library, may interest a larger class of readers.

The Science of Exchanges. By N. A. Nicholson, M.A., Trinity College, Oxford. Fourth Edition. (New York: Cassell, Petter & Galpin. 1873.)—Mr. Nicholson has succeeded in getting more information about money, value, price, currency, coinage, and exchange, and even rent and taxation, into small compass than, we may safely say, any author we know of, and the secret of his success lies simply in the command of a remarkably lucid style, and a curious and somewhat original use of the device of "question and answer." Ordinarily attempts to impart knowledge in this way result in the construction of a dreary dialogue—one of the parties to which appears as a helpless but docile ignoramus, and the other as a ponderous and preternaturally solemn pedagogue. Mr. Nicholson's questions are, however, very much such as any intelligent man you meet in the street and who had never given any thought to economical subjects would be apt to ask, and the answers will probably strike nine readers out of ten as the very thing they would have themselves liked to say. Their value as aids to attention is increased, too, by a vein of grim, sarcastic humor in which Mr. Nicholson's own prejudices crop out in a somewhat comical way, as where, after quoting an opinion of the London Times on banking, he puts as Question 236, "Can you mention any one whose opinion is different from the Times?" and then quotes as the answer Mr. Tooke and Sir Robert Peel; and where he refers the student to the writings of Mr. John Stuart Mill for the answer to the question—"What can be said in favor of small farms?" on the ground that "small farmers are so much more comfortably off in his books than they are elsewhere."

Mr. Nicholson is an out-and-out free-trader, an ardent supporter of the Bank Restriction Act of 1844, an indomitable "hard-money man," a believer in large farms and in a judicious mixture of direct and indirect taxation. The most striking original observations in his book are those in which he decides the ponderous discussions which have taken place on the nature and origin of rent, showing that they have no more mystery or importance in agriculture than in manufactures, in butter-making than in button-making, and in which he maintains, against Mr. John Stuart Mill, that the doctrine that land is limited in quantity, and property in it ought not, therefore, to be left open to competition and the operation of the ordinary laws of trade, is fallacious in this—that it is limited in quantity to the same extent as all other commodities, and no more, if we consider the land of the globe in its relation to the human race; and the proof he finds in the fact that the products of the earth, which for man's purpose are the earth, increase as fast as the consumers of them. He acknowledges that land in one place, as in England, for instance, is limited in quantity, but asks what difference this makes as long as the nation has made up its mind not to rely on its own agricultural products for support. This is all acute and ingenious, but does not cover the whole case, as it does not touch on the influence of landed property on character and institutions—or, in other words, passes by without notice the political bearing of land laws. The book is one, however, which will make anybody who masters it and accepts it a very formidable antagonist on any of the leading economical questions of the day. The publishers or the author make a mistake in putting nothing on the outside but a Greek title, which not one in a thousand of those to whom the book might be most useful will understand.

The Fishing Tourist: Angler's Guide and Reference Book. By Charles Hallock, Secretary of the "Blooming Grove Park Association." (New York: Harpers. 1873.) *I go A-Fishing.* By W. C. Prime. (New York: Harpers. 1873.)—These two books belong to different classes. Mr. Hallock's is chiefly filled with practical advice for fly-fishing, or rather (for neither he nor Mr. Prime is of those purists who disdain on all occasions to bait their hook) for trout and salmon fishing. His advice is sensible, and will be found of advantage to the fisherman in almost every part of the trout and salmon region of the United States.

Mr. Prime is a writer of another kidney. His object is perhaps not so much to imitate Isaac Walton (or, as he is commonly called by thorough-going fishermen, Old Isaac Walton) as to write a book immeasurably finer than anything which Isaac Walton could ever have dreamed of writing. It is a sort of book for parts of which Mr. Hallock would have a great contempt, as he says in his preface that "with a few notable exceptions, our sporting literature is composed of technical scientific treatises, . . . or else the books are mere recitals of personal exploits, supplemented by sentimental apostrophes to nature, and rounded off with high-flown periods." There is, to be sure, a good deal besides this in Mr. Prime's book, containing as it does wonderful stories of Eastern love and revenge, bibliographical discussions, investigations into the character of Agnes Dürer, dialogues on the morality of angling, and many other interesting topics. For our part, we must say that we object much more to the moralizing than to the fish stories. There is a sort of pleasure to be got—not, perhaps, wildly exciting, but still a pleasure—from the anticipations aroused in the mind when we read about the deliberate preparations, the cautious steps through the long grass or the bushes, the calculation of the distance from the pool, the "cast," the light descent of the yellow, or the red, or the green, or the blue flies upon the surface of the water, the sure "rise," the steady "strike," the fearful "whirr" of the reel, the agonizing run of the line, the unexpected turn of the fish, the doubtful recovery of the "slack," and all the subsequent manœuvres of the angler and his victim. We like this better, for instance, than such an extraordinary production as that called '*Iskander Effendi*.' We have found Mr. Prime's book, in short, rather tedious, on account of the ambitious style in which it is written. It seems, however, to contain a good deal of sense about fishing. On one point he deserves the thanks of all those who have ever cast a line. Almost all neophytes in the art of fishing are confused by the strange things they hear about the particular kind of flies it is necessary to use, and find by experience that the directions given them are actually worthless. After fishing all day with flies of approved pattern, it often happens that some strange bit of color like nothing recommended will suddenly kill fish after fish. The explanation of this is, according to Mr. Prime, that the habits of breeding of trout—and no doubt it is true of salmon also—are different in different pieces of water, not only as to hours, but as to food; and it is hence useless to try to form any opinion as to what fish will do in any given place, without actual experience of the water. The particular fish to be attacked must be studied and understood.

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The Bank of England rate of discount was again reduced $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. on Thursday, and now stands at $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. The Bank gained £96,000 in bullion last week, and the Bank of France gained in specie 7,000,900 francs.

The weekly statement of the Clearing-house banks on Thursday was unfavorable. The banks lose \$895,600 in their total reserve, while the total liabilities have decreased but \$314,500. The surplus reserve now stands at \$13,803,475, against \$14,620,450 last week—a decrease of \$816,975.

The following are the statements for the past two weeks:

	July 26.	August 2.	Differences.
Loans.....	\$289,389,100	\$289,986,200	Inc. \$597,100
Specie.....	31,249,300	32,272,200	Dec. 977,100
Circulation.....	27,225,100	27,188,000	Dec. 37,100
Deposits.....	239,118,300	238,810,900	Dec. 277,400
Legal tenders.....	49,957,000	50,038,500	Inc. 81,500

The following shows the relation between the total reserve and the total liabilities:

	July 26.	August 2.	Differences.
Specie.....	\$31,249,300	\$30,272,200	Dec. \$977,100
Legal tenders.....	49,957,000	50,038,500	Inc. 81,500
Total reserve.....	\$81,206,300	\$80,310,700	Dec. \$895,600
Circulation.....	27,225,100	27,188,000	Dec. 37,100
Deposits.....	239,118,300	238,810,900	Dec. 277,400
Total liabilities.....	\$266,343,400	\$266,028,900	Dec. \$314,500
25 per cent. reserve.....	66,585,850	66,507,225	Dec. 78,625
Excess over legal reserve.....	14,620,450	13,803,475	Dec. 816,975

The stock market has been quite active for the time of year. The dealings, however, have been mostly confined to the "Vanderbilt stocks," with Western Union Telegraph as the leading feature. The sales of Western Union reached 124,600 shares, or double those of any other stock, excepting Pacific Mail and Lake Shore. The rumors respecting the leasing of the Lake Shore Road to the Central and Hudson continue, and seem to be sufficient to keep up a very "bullish" feeling in the stock. The basis spoken of, upon which the road will be leased to the Central, is 8 per cent. guaranteed dividends by the latter to the former; but, of course, nobody goes so far as to say when the lease will be made, or what are the terms.

Pacific Mail has been quite active at times. On Friday, the property of

the Company in this city was attached by the county and city for non-payment of taxes. The amount due was subsequently paid and the property released. The feeling against the present board of directors is very bitter, and in the Exchange during the week very plain language has been used respecting their conduct in the administration of the Company's affairs. The general belief is that the directors are short of the stock, and are consequently anxious that the price should go down, in order that they may "buy in" at a profit.

There is a better feeling in some of the investment stocks, and we notice that the price of Chicago, Burlington, and Quincy has advanced to 106, after having sold at 98 $\frac{1}{2}$. Michigan Central is also firm, with a good demand from investors.

The following shows the highest and lowest sales of the leading stocks at the Stock Exchange for the week ending August 2, 1873:

	Monday.	Tuesday.	Wednesday.	Thursday.	Friday.	Saturday.	Sales.
N. Y. C. & H. R.....	104 $\frac{1}{2}$	104 $\frac{1}{2}$	105 $\frac{1}{2}$	105 $\frac{1}{2}$	105 $\frac{1}{2}$	105 $\frac{1}{2}$	35,900
Lake Shore.....	93 $\frac{1}{2}$	94	94 $\frac{1}{2}$	95	94 $\frac{1}{2}$	95 $\frac{1}{2}$	67,700
Erie.....	58 $\frac{1}{2}$	59 $\frac{1}{2}$	60 $\frac{1}{2}$	59 $\frac{1}{2}$	59 $\frac{1}{2}$	59 $\frac{1}{2}$	29,000
Do. pfd.....	72 $\frac{1}{2}$	72 $\frac{1}{2}$	72 $\frac{1}{2}$	74 $\frac{1}{2}$	73 $\frac{1}{2}$	73 $\frac{1}{2}$	100
Union Pacific.....	27 $\frac{1}{2}$	27 $\frac{1}{2}$	27 $\frac{1}{2}$	28 $\frac{1}{2}$	28 $\frac{1}{2}$	28 $\frac{1}{2}$	19,200
Chi. & N. W.....	69 $\frac{1}{2}$	70 $\frac{1}{2}$	69 $\frac{1}{2}$	69 $\frac{1}{2}$	70	69 $\frac{1}{2}$	18,500
Do. pfd.....	83	83	83 $\frac{1}{2}$	84	83 $\frac{1}{2}$	83 $\frac{1}{2}$	100
N. J. Central.....	100 $\frac{1}{2}$	100 $\frac{1}{2}$	101	102 $\frac{1}{2}$	103	103	100
Rock Island.....	110 $\frac{1}{2}$	110 $\frac{1}{2}$	111	110 $\frac{1}{2}$	110 $\frac{1}{2}$	110 $\frac{1}{2}$	10,900
Mil. & St. Paul.....	51 $\frac{1}{2}$	52 $\frac{1}{2}$	52 $\frac{1}{2}$	52 $\frac{1}{2}$	52 $\frac{1}{2}$	52 $\frac{1}{2}$	19,900
Do. pfd.....	71 $\frac{1}{2}$	71 $\frac{1}{2}$	72 $\frac{1}{2}$	73 $\frac{1}{2}$	74	74	100
Wabash.....	71 $\frac{1}{2}$	72 $\frac{1}{2}$	72 $\frac{1}{2}$	73 $\frac{1}{2}$	73 $\frac{1}{2}$	72 $\frac{1}{2}$	15,100
D. L. & Western.....	100 $\frac{1}{2}$	100 $\frac{1}{2}$	100 $\frac{1}{2}$	101	101 $\frac{1}{2}$	101 $\frac{1}{2}$	9,900
R. H. & Erie.....	23 $\frac{1}{2}$	23 $\frac{1}{2}$	23 $\frac{1}{2}$	23 $\frac{1}{2}$	23 $\frac{1}{2}$	23 $\frac{1}{2}$	400
O. & M.....	39 $\frac{1}{2}$	40 $\frac{1}{2}$	40 $\frac{1}{2}$	39 $\frac{1}{2}$	40 $\frac{1}{2}$	39 $\frac{1}{2}$	17,600
C. C. & I. C.....	31 $\frac{1}{2}$	32	32 $\frac{1}{2}$	31 $\frac{1}{2}$	32 $\frac{1}{2}$	31 $\frac{1}{2}$	3,800
W. U. Tel.....	91 $\frac{1}{2}$	92 $\frac{1}{2}$	93 $\frac{1}{2}$	92	92 $\frac{1}{2}$	92 $\frac{1}{2}$	124,500
Pacific Mail.....	37 $\frac{1}{2}$	38 $\frac{1}{2}$	37 $\frac{1}{2}$	37 $\frac{1}{2}$	37 $\frac{1}{2}$	38	71,000

Government bonds have been very quiet, with the floating supply upon the market small. The net decrease in the public debt amounted to but \$370,518 for the month of July. The final settlement was completed on Wednesday, with the Syndicate, for the \$50,000,000 5-20's called in March 1, 1873.

The business in railroad bonds has been very light, owing to the absence of many investors from the city. We hear of a few defaults in the payment of the August interest upon railroad bonds, mostly by new roads. The July interest upon the bonds of a number of new roads was passed, and this has doubtless caused some timidity and interfered with investment purchases.

The gold market has been very dull, with a downward tendency in price. The range of quotations for the week has been between 115 $\frac{1}{8}$ and 115 $\frac{1}{4}$, with 115 $\frac{1}{8}$ to 115 $\frac{1}{2}$ as the closing price.

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